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Editorially speaking . . .

• With this issue, *Public Personnel Review* rings down the curtain on 1948, its ninth year of publication. Next year, our contributors willing, the Assembly's journal will be able to look back on ten years of existence. We are looking forward to the time when we can look backward on a decade, but even more, we are looking forward to the next one.

• In post-war France, rejuvenation of the nation's higher civil service has been a major matter of official concern. New policies for recruiting and training the top-level administrative

corps have been established, and students of government are watching progress of the plan with keen interest. One observer of these developments is Dr. Herman Finer, internationally known authority in the field of public administration. In his article, *The Higher French Civil Service*, Dr. Finer presents a penetrating analysis of the shortcomings in the earlier French civil service system, and describes the program of reform now under way.

• When five civil service agencies successfully pool their resources to conduct a joint series of

examinations it is real news. Inter-agency co-operation on such a scale requires more than just good-will; it calls for hard work, willingness to compromise, and careful attention to a host of details. Such a project has recently been concluded in the San Francisco Bay region, and the story of this venture is told by Harry Albert in his article, *An Experiment in Cooperative Examining*.

- In New York, a closely integrated program of public service internship training is now in its second year of operation. Through it, young men and women bent on a public service career are given opportunity to enrich their academic training with practical experience in various state agencies. The agencies themselves have the opportunity to size up the potentialities of the interns against their future needs for administrative talent. The evolution of this program is described by Lynton K. Caldwell in his article, *The New York State Internship Program*.

- "What are the traits that make a good supervisor, and how can you test for them effectively?" This double-barreled question has long stumped many a personnel man. At the same time, everyone recognizes the prime importance of selecting capable supervisors and administrators, and test research is turning more and more in that direction. In his article, *Testing for Administrative and Supervisory Positions*, Milton Mandell describes some

promising results that have come out of recent experimental work in this field.

- When line administrators gather around the conference table and start comparing notes, they quickly lose their traditional "department-mindedness," and begin to look at common problems from the service-wide point of view. This has been the experience in the California state service, where more than a score of middle-management men gather regularly to study their mutual problems, many of which concern personnel policies. *The California State Deputy Directors' Conference*, by William K. Smith, describes this unusual experiment in management coordination.

- A recent mail brought a gracious note from overseas, commenting on the *Review*. George Lach, Director of the Institute for Public Administration of England, wrote to tell us how much he enjoyed the last issue. At such kind words we turn and bow appreciatively to each of our contributors; they are the ones who deserve the praise.

- A talented young lady employed in one of the federal departments was invited to sing "My Old Kentucky Home" at the Philadelphia convention of one of the political parties last summer. She was advised by her supervisor to decline the invitation lest she lay herself open to disciplinary action for violating the ban on political activity by federal employees. He undoubtedly feared that it would be construed as lobbying for action on housing legislation.

The French Higher Civil Service HERMAN N. FINER

SINCE the liberation of France from German occupation, a vast renewal has occurred in all branches of French government. In many ways, this was long overdue. The absence of necessary reforms had contributed materially to the downfall of France when met by the swift impact of malevolent German efficiency under the leadership of Hitler. Once the provisional government was installed in Paris from the middle of 1945 and the Consultative Assembly began to function under the impetus of General De Gaulle on the one hand and the energetic and active leaders of the resistance on the other, far-reaching constitutional and administrative changes were undertaken and the administrative branch received early and thorough attention.

Among the reforms so carried out was the reconstruction of the higher civil service of France. This wasn't the only branch of the civil service to be reconstructed: the whole of the services, together with their legal basis and all personnel problems, were put on a systematic and new foundation. This article, however, concerns itself principally with the higher civil service. It begins with a brief statement of the deficiencies of the higher civil service of the Third Republic during the period from 1875 to the downfall of France in 1940, and then discusses the reforms that were instituted and are now in operation.

The higher civil service of the Third Republic suffered from some serious shortcomings generally recognized and deplored, and yet not remedied owing to the instability of cabinets and passionate internecine social conflicts. First, the various

departmental services were highly specialized not only by function, which is natural, but by their educational preparation. Apart from the general education at the *lycée* or schools of that level, any general common state of mind was disrupted by specialized professional preparation of the kind already described. This flew directly in face of the common sense of the French liberal critics, and compared unfavorably with the theory and practice of the higher civil service that efficiently prevailed in Britain. We have said that integration begins in the schools: France destroyed it, and the various government departments deliberately did so on wrong theories and for unworthy motives. What the departments put asunder, the unstable cabinets could not join: a united mind.

Second, probation and apprenticeship were not real. No attempt was made to give post-entry training, none to put the entrant through stages of practical work, and hardly anyone that entered was ever dismissed for unsuitability.

Third, the intellectual education received in the various schools that particularly provided for entrants to the public service was of a high grade, the highest in the world in point of the severity with which the student was compelled to attend to his studies. But it was heavily theoretical and synoptic. It was, in a sense, highly technical, even if the subject were law or economics. One has only to examine the text-books to be convinced of this. The formulae were all cut and dried. They were answers, but not thought-provoking problems. They did not whirr as reality whirrs. The studies had a thin, remote, antiquated, flavor about them. The truth was that France had slipped dangerously from any proper level of excellence in economic and political science studies: the books did not

• HERMAN N. FINER is Professor of Political Science, University of Chicago, and is widely known as an authority in the field of public administration. Among his many published works are *The British Civil Service* and *Theory and Practice of Modern Government*.

exist because Frenchmen did not write them. The reader will look in vain for a Hawtrey, a Keynes, a Robbins, a Hansen, a Wesley Mitchell in economics in the Third Republic. He will, in political science, miss a Corwin, a G. D. H. Cole, a Sidney and Beatrice Webb, a Graham Wallas, a Walter Lippmann, a Walton Hamilton, a Lawrence Lowell, a Laski, a Jennings, and so many others, and he will find nothing like the great series of commissions and committee hearings and reports on administrative reform that adorn the Anglo-Saxon countries in the last four decades.

Fourth, all* these things together resulted in a resistant autonomy on the part of the various departments and bureaus, an unintelligent *amour propre* that was cultivated and affected to the point of non-cooperation and even obstruction.

Fifth, between the grade of *rédacteurs*, the administrative type, and the executive-clerical class, the arrangement of functions came to be confused, because no care was taken to establish and maintain the clear distinction between the higher duties and the routine. In departments recruiting from time to time for themselves, as vacancies arose, with their own division of functions, it often became convenient out of sheer slovenly expediency to give the lower ranks the work of the upper and the upper the work of the lower. The only way to check this is by the establishment of a class which runs through all departments, given integrity by a common education, a common examination, and a common status.

Sixth, since no common class existed with its own career prospects, some departments attracted brilliant and ambitious men, while others could not even be filled. A single department, when it is of mediocre significance in the state and yet needs to be manned as much as do the others, is not an attraction when it is a trap into which one enters without the later chance of transfer. To be a member of a single class available for all employments, and with a right to request transfer and change in relation to all other promotees, spreads

talent and saves some of it from permanent frustration.

Seventh, the promotion system, from grade to grade, required by law that the promotee should go into the next higher position. To make room for those who deserved promotion, more jobs were created than were necessary for the work. No notice was taken of comparative ability: promotions were given out of good nature. If men of special merit were required, some grades ahead, then they were often brought in by the minister by special decree, or some were brought in on an unestablished basis. Yet this produced more frustration for those who expected promotion, but who were defeated by the lack of rational system in the composition of the service.

Eighth, the service was on the whole manned by the upper bourgeoisie which was not energetically democratic, and in some of its branches was actually and even fiercely anti-democratic. Now, on the whole there were some opportunities for working class and middle class brains to get to the universities in France, because secondary school education was freer than in England thirty years ago, where the number of free places in the secondary schools was strictly limited. Yet the cost of tuition and maintenance in the post-lycée period, at college or university, was a class restriction on entrance into the public service.

Conservatism in the Educational System

MUCH HAS BEEN MADE of the social and political conservatism and anti-democratic flavor of the recruits entering from the *École Libre des Sciences Politiques*. Some observations on this subject are necessary. The school was established in 1871 as a private foundation, with funds supplied by rich donors, by a notable student of political science, Émile Boutmy. The purpose was to restore French government and administration after the defeat by Prussia, and especially to bring into political science and administrative studies some of the pungent air of reality these had always had in the nation across the

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channel. Several generations of publicists, politicians, and administrators were taught there to serve the republic. It was a splendid idea: but the school had its deficiencies. The first was that it could not of itself repair the specialization of teaching forced upon it by the structure of the administrative services themselves, and the non-existence of a single administrative service with a common education and selected annually by a single assembled examination. Its teachers were inclined to *laissez faire* in economics and the legalistic approach in constitutional and public law. And it was, in the main, a school for the wealthy. During World War II it fell into irretrievable disrepute, since the defeat was blamed on its teaching and products—and though this was far from being wholly just, there was enough in the charge that could be justified.

This judgment, so far as it was well-founded, took its grave importance from the kind of view expressed by Daniel Halévy:¹

Republican France has, in reality, two constitutions: one, that of 1875, is official, visible, and fills the Press—this is parliamentary: the other is secret and silent, it is that of the Year VIII—it is the Napoleonic constitution which vests the direction of the country in the administrative corps.

One credible and gallant witness, by profession a member of the *Conseil d'État*, declares² that the upper ranks of the administration were taught by anti-Republican and even reactionary professors, leading to enmity to the Republic. He asserts that it was well-nigh impossible to get into the *Conseil d'État* or the Inspectorate of Finances and other departments without studying at the *École Libre des Sciences Politiques*. Andre Géraud, writing as *Pertinax* about "the Gravediggers of France," passes from blaming the treasury officials to the school which nurtured them:³

As I looked over the programs listing the various subjects taught in this institution I was often amazed at the number of degree-spangled pedants

who now replaced the founders. The majority of treasury officials were recruited from this school. Vanity of examinations and competitions! These fellows were not chosen because of their intrinsic merit, the strength of their personality, or their fine character, but merely because of the supposed orthodoxy of their views, their powers of mimicry, their connections, their position in Parisian society, among the two or three thousand people who held the big jobs, set the fashion, handed out favors, and made the law. . . . Inspectors of finance (treasury officials) were one huge family, and that connection could not be called healthy.

These men had loyalties, but they were not to the Chamber of Deputies; they had abilities but not those of a larger republican statesmanship. It was quite a habit of the treasury officials to go into the employment of high finance after a few years in office. The double fault of the higher administration was that the officials were authoritarian and that the disjointed structure of the departments ruined the usefulness of such professional competence as they had. In some, this competence was very high; in some, loyalty to the nation—their conception of the nation—was very deep.

Furthermore, the high officials, overdoctrinaire and disunited as they were, could not be and were not coordinated, harmonized, and driven towards objectives of national policy seen as a whole and steadily pursued. For the cabinets, their masters, were never in office long enough to make an impression, but always in office just long enough to cause an annoying disturbance and the comfortable sniggering reflection among officials that they were on their way out.

Finally, the central departments, particularly the Ministry of the Interior, the Treasury, the Ministry of Justice, the Ministry of Education, and the *Conseil d'État*, were the strict unifying masters of all the local government units—*départements, arrondissements, cantons, and communes*—of France. Though some decentralization had lightened the weight of financial and administrative controls emanating from Paris during the life-time of the Third Republic, *la tutelle*, the central tutelage over policies, appointments, activities, and the regular budgets, was still one of the most

¹ Cf. *Décadence de la Liberté*, 1931.

² Pierre Tissier, *I Worked with Laval*, 1942, pp.

7 ff.

³ Pertinax, *The Gravediggers of France*, 1944, p. 364 ff.

rigorous and exacting in the world.⁴ It operated in the main through the *prefets* in the *départements*, though the central offices' inspectors were also its instruments; and the *prefets* and their adjutants were the nominees of the Ministry of the Interior. Whatever was bureaucratic, officious, and narrow-minded in the capital, got itself reflected at any rate to some extent throughout France, with the exception of the big cities like Lyons or Marseilles. French local services were very backward compared with those in Britain and Germany.

So fell the French Third Republic. If the sap of mind and devotion of all its high officials was not dried up, it was at least withered enough to make the radical reconstruction of the higher administrative services one of the principal anxieties of the Fourth Republic.

The Higher Civil Service in the Fourth Republic

AN ATTEMPT was made in 1937 to reform the recruitment of the higher civil service. It failed in the Chamber of Deputies chiefly because the problem had become so complicated that a democratic assembly in the conditions of the Third Republic could not see and force its way through all the jungle of vested interests, official and academic.

It is noteworthy that such a reform could only come in the wake of resurgence after defeat, and in a regime which was still of a zealous, warrior temper, and was not yet delivered back to the habits of the Third Republic's politicians.

General de Gaulle, then head of the Provisional Government, commissioned a member of the *Conseil d'État* to undertake the mission of preparing a radical change.⁵ It comprised a simultaneous reform of the higher administrative service and of the educational system: for a reform of one without the other was now acknowledged

to be useless. After deliberations in the *Conseil d'État*, the council of ministers, and the Consultative Assembly, the combined ordinances, decrees and regulations were published on October 10, 1945.

Instead of the single *rédauteur* grade, which had here and there become confused with the executive and clerical officers, two high grades were now established: (1) civil administrators; and (2) secretaries of administration. The civil administrators are the group for which the recruitment reforms chiefly provide. They are almost identical with the British administrative class, and were consciously modelled upon it. Wherever they serve, all are subject to the same broad disciplinary rules, and they constitute one single group and career whichever department they happen to serve at any time. Their hierarchy going upwards is administrators-adjoint, administrative class 3, then class 2, then class 1, and then class "exceptional." All of these are recruited through a newly instituted *École Nationale d'Administration*, from now on referred to as "The School." Their function has been described as

... to fit the conduct of administrative affairs to the general policy of the Government, to prepare drafts of laws and rules and ministerial decisions, to formulate the directives to their execution and to coordinate the march of the public services.⁶

On the other hand, the secretaries of administration were rather like the "executive class" of the British civil service. The same authority describes them as "the technicians of the administrative services." He says of them, "Their task is to assure the works of execution, current operations, and certain specialized functions which require sound administrative knowledge and experience." They could be called top office managers. They fall into a managerial group, and two special categories, accountants and translators. These are recruited by an examination which is open to officials aged 35 and over and hav-

⁴ Cf. Maspétol and Laroque, *La Tutelle Administrative*, 1930; Gooch, *Regionalism in France*, 1931.

⁵ This was Marcel Debré, Maître des Regnètes, and then commissioner for the region of Angers, with France still under a war regime.

⁶ Cf. Marcel Debré, "La Réforme de la fonction publique," in *Revue de l'École d'Administration*, May 1946, p. 34. Cf. also the Annual Calendars of The School. *L'École Nationale d'Administration*, 1947, Imprimerie Nationale.

ing five years of public service, and to young persons between the ages of 18 and 25, holding a diploma of higher (secondary) education or the equivalent.

The Civil Administrators

THE POSITION of the administrative class, as it may be called henceforth, is clearly distinguished by its recruitment, its functions, its career. The first task of the State is to assure itself of a flow of properly talented recruits for the administrative service. The School is concerned with the task of their further formation once it has found them. Essential to the discovery is the general prescription of what is being sought. This is described by the principal architect of the reform in these words:

The "administration" is diverse in its composition. In this generic term are wrapped up services of very different nature. There are civil services of a purely administrative character and technical services, metropolitan and colonial services, home services and services abroad. The magistracy, the university and the armed forces are equally part of the administration.

It is diverse in its structure and its members. Certain services have a simple character of execution and those who carry them out have no part in the direction of the affairs of the State. Others, on the contrary, are at the very heart of the life of the nation and their officers may be considered as influential collaborators of the political authorities.

When we talk of a School of Administration and when one envisages the administrative reform bound up with its establishment, the word "administration" has a special sense. It means that combination of services of a civil character which constitute the superior structure of the State and whose members have as their principal task to prepare or study the decisions of Parliament and the Government and then to direct their execution. It is among these officials that the Government would naturally choose a great number of its high officers, notably those who will occupy the situations which wield authority or of administration linked with policy.

Of the relevant services these principal ones come rapidly to mind: the central administrations of the ministries, the prefectural and diplomatic services, the services of inspection, the administrative bodies concerned with law-making and control (the *Conseil d'Etat* and the Court of Accounts). There are others like these.⁷

This general description is vividly reminiscent of Macaulay's formula for the British Civil Service.

The French Government rejected two ideas formerly suggested for the education

of such a higher administrative career. One was modelled on the idea of the *Polytechnique*. Here quite young men at once entered their career and were educated to it in this school, whence after three years of study they went off to their actual job. But this meant that the candidates were far too young and immature, coming directly from secondary schools. The tendency would be to impress upon them a single identical outlook. General culture would have been sacrificed to narrowness of the specialized administrative outlook—in a field where breadth was of the utmost importance. It was felt to be a little undemocratic, since it might be that those who had so young felt or been persuaded of the appeal of public service might be of an authoritarian temper, and only a small social class could afford such an education.

Another idea was to bring from the Universities to a special school of administration each year entrants chosen by competition. Here they would be prepared for their administrative service examinations. The students accepted would have their board, lodging and tuition fees paid by the State. This idea was discarded, as it stood, because it did not thoroughly enough grapple with the kind of education given at the Universities.

Two new ingredients were necessary: better University preparation of recruits for the public service, and a new institution for the intelligent development of those who had shown prowess in the new University stage.

The Reform of University Education

IN THE Universities, and with the authority of the Universities, there are established Institutes of Political Studies, or, in other words, faculties of political and social sciences. Their object is to coordinate and develop the work hitherto undertaken by the other faculties in the teaching of economics, administration and social studies, and to educate students in the work-methods and concrete problems of administration and social life. The true scope is the whole of the social sciences: the new object, animation and creativeness after so

⁷ Ibid, pp. 10-11.

long a period of intellectual and spiritual infertility.

For some years the institutes will be established only in Paris, Strasbourg, Toulouse and Lyons, for it is recognized that the reform will stand or fall by its products, and it is not deemed possible that enough of the right kind of teachers can be found for more institutes. No institute may come into existence unless its faculty, curriculum and methods can first pass the very strict scrutiny of the *Conseil d'État*. Students can enter the institutes if they have a diploma of higher education (advanced secondary) on the list approved by The School. All candidates for entrance who deserve it and are needy are granted scholarships by the State. The State enters through its grant of scholarships, and also through the memberships of certain officials and the director of The School on the "councils of improvement," which supervise the development of each institute, and through the President of the Council of Ministers' approval of their curricula and administration. The other connection between the State and preparation for the higher administrative service will become apparent later.

In their first year the students take an almost identical common course; in their second and third, many optional courses are permitted to accommodate some natural appetites and vocational interests. But specialization is banished. The purpose of the studies at the institute is a broad, liberal education, through the medium of the faculties of law and the humanities, with the additional focus of the social sciences. The education is by lectures, discussions, practical tasks, and seminar work. The teachers are the university professors and various authorities from the services and outside affairs, the latter to give a guarantee of "animation." A severe examination at the end of the first year expels students not up to standard. After three years of work, a final examination leads to a diploma. The diploma is crucial—it is the first qualification for entrance into The School for those who do not come in by way of mem-

bership of the public service: it is the principal key to the public service at the top administrative level.

The School: L'École Nationale d'Administration

THE SCHOOL serves several purposes, incident to the formation of cultured and practical-minded civil servants. It replaces the separate, departmental, specialized entrance examinations by a single annual competition. It provides for the people with talent but without means, because those who are admitted receive adequate payment as officials for the three years for which their studies now proceed. Receiving annually about ninety entrants who have already given proof of exceptional ability, The School has designed a combination of instruction by books and classes with a very clever succession of practical work-stages. The object is to focus the minds and habits of the students so that they will be actively responsive to administrative tasks. Once again the students cover many subjects in the whole field of the social sciences: for illustration, the list includes administrative law and organization, legislation, administrative justice, fiscal and budgetary law, public accounts, public credit, economic legislation, labor relations, colonial organization and legislation, international law, foreign policy and international problems, statistics, population theory, town planning, currency and banking, commercial policy, international transport, hygiene and preventive medicine, and social security.

Above all, The School sets its face sternly against the production of officials by mere book knowledge, and against the merely formal principle of probation, which (as in almost every public service) had become a dead letter in practice. Most of the time at the School is spent in practice in the various administrative agencies.

What is of equally outstanding interest is that the School deliberately addresses itself to the problem of the moral cultivation of its officials. It will be remembered that it was to this that the minds of the English reformers of the middle nine-

teenth century was addressed, and we have already observed that the problem of character is one that still baffles those who recruit for the public service. The observations of the principal author of the French reform on the problem of moral education are particularly significant and well-styled, for they offer an insight into the nature of the civil service in the modern state. He says:

It is not part of the mission of the School to play politics nor to impose a doctrine. But the School must teach its future officials the sense of the State; it must make them understand the responsibilities of the administration, cause them to taste the greatness and accept the servitudes of their profession. It must do more. By a continuous effort made by its best professors, by recalling great examples and the great men in history, it must give to its pupils the taste for certain cardinal qualities; the sense of the humane that infuses life in every kind of work, the sense of decision which permits the taking of decision after the risks have been weighed, the sense of imagination which is not afraid of any daring, any great deed. And even more than that. The founders of the first school of administration placed high hopes in the spirit which would animate their students. They were right, and it is proper today, on the eve of the years when the obligations of the service of the State will be heavier than ever, to relive the faith of the republicans of 1848 in the value of moral virtue taught and understood. When such is invoked certain persons prick up their ears: they fear the reverse of the medal: a spirit of caste which would pervert the administration. But their judgment is superficial. The variety of the sources of recruitment for the School, the maturity already attained by most of its students, the determination to make them participate by numerous practical activities in the difficulties of life, are some of the elements which will prevent the School becoming a closed chapel.⁸

This ideal is so clear that all that is now needed to make the services of the School plain is a brief and bare description of its procedure and organization.

Admission to the School

THERE ARE two separate examinations for entrance into the School, one for the students, the other for officials already in the public service. The former is taken by persons less than 26 years of age and holding the diploma of the institutes of politics, the latter for officials between the ages of 26 and 30 provided they have been in the public service for five years or more. (Some of

the secretaries of administration will thus get their opportunity to rise.) The examinations are in the fields of political science and economics, but general themes, not specialized, are set the students. The generality of the examination extends to the setting of subjects covering a much wider field of university studies than those in the institutes, in order that those who have not yet thought of becoming civil servants should not be excluded from deciding to do so at this stage. The entrants from the civil service, who have not had time to acquire a general education, are given a specialized examination without a foreign language. All take a physical examination of some severity, and it may be added that all candidates must have accomplished their military service. The final proportion between the two classes of entrants will be decided by experience.

The School is organized in four sections: general administration, economic and financial administration, social administration, and foreign affairs. The candidates declare into which of these they would like admission. The theory is that the candidates should be given the opportunity of entering the vocation of their spontaneous choice, and that, as specialization is inevitable it should be neither ignored nor pushed to an extreme. In the entrance examinations questions are provided enabling candidates to offer answers within their specialty; but care has been taken to avoid anything like four separate examinations. The examiners look for general culture, personality and character, and the latter are appraised by a very broadly constituted board of interviewers. Students are listed in the order of merit on one single list according to marks obtained, and they choose what section they wish to enter according to their place. If they cannot get into the section they want, they must go into some other—or try again next year.

Now that they have been admitted into the School, students come under the disciplinary code of the civil service, receive a salary, and commit themselves to serve the state for a period of twelve years, and, fail-

⁸ Debre, *ibid*, p. 22.

ing this obligation, to pay back to the state the three years' salary received at the School.

The three years are divided into a first year of practical work, followed by a mixed arrangement of schooling and practical work in the second and third years. At the end of the three years the student-officials are classified by aptitude and competence: the incompetent and unworthy are expelled. They may be dropped for cause at any time during the three years. Their grades at the final classing are composed to the extent of one-half for practical work and schooling, and one-half on their final examination—and they are classed in their sections. But a general classing is also drawn up so that certain administrations like the *Conseil d'État* may take their recruits from diverse sources.

The governmental agencies which have so far been designated to be served by the graduates of the School are the *Conseil d'État*, the Court of Accounts, the highest level of the central administration of the ministries, the diplomatic and cognate services, the general inspectorate of finances and the general inspectorate of the administrative services, the inspectorates of labor, the administration of Algeria and the civil control of Morocco and Tunisia, and the prefectural career. The relative centralization of French government makes all these posts of more than usual importance. As regards the prefectural career, the present innovation is of special importance since it brings to completion the development of the last three decades tending to take the career of prefect out of politics. Furthermore, it is the intention to create one service of the central controlling authority, the Ministry of the Interior, and its field services in the *départements*.

When the recruits enter the actual service of the state they enter, like their counterparts in Britain, the assistant principals or administrative cadets, into a *début* stage. Some places, however, are kept for outsiders and promotees. Some places, also, are not available, since the ministers in their own discretion may make the ap-

pointments to positions of "direction and authority."

Practical Training

SOCIAL VALUE is placed by the School on the stages of practical training. It is, above all, desired to remedy the defect of all previous methods of recruitment, namely, to overcome the entirely theoretical knowledge by practice before the candidates enter on their own executive responsibilities. The critics of pre-war French administration emphasize that its officials were more content to write a clever letter, a very complete report, or a well-turned memorandum, rather than act anew. Moreover, it is desired to overcome whatever may still remain of the big city outlook of the entrants by sending them to participate for some time in the provinces and the overseas territories, and also, to bring about the earliest possible contact between official and labor unions, since so many come from the middle class. In addition, there are practical arts to learn from those already exercising executive responsibilities.

The various stages of practical training have been most carefully and precisely devised after comprehensive consultations with civil servants, schools, groups concerned with scientific personnel management, and private experts. The stages include spells of time in provincial and local administration in France and the overseas territories in the central departments and the *Conseil d'État*, and in the various controls and inspectorates. There are stages of service in the different parliamentary bodies. The next series of experiences take place in the nationalized industries, and in private business of large and middle size which are soundly organized. The demands of a planned state, as well as the hitherto poverty of economic studies in France, have conduced to this stage, and there must be added the desire to impress the student with the idea that planning is not easy and that there is value and life in sound private enterprise. Finally, some if not all, students will spend some months abroad in the French services or in foreign public services or private enterprise.

What will be gained by this very well devised system of practice, or in service training, besides a vivid, synoptic view? This:

By such contacts, the future civil administrators will drink in progressively the sense of what is real and efficacious, the taste for action and personal initiative, a large comprehension of the most diverse social places, a comprehension made up of the knowledge of men and things, and also, let us hope, that sympathy for men which is the condition of all great work. . . . By the end of these administrative training stages, the students will have acquired the sense of the State, not of a state abandoned to instable passions, or disdainful of personal and local liberties, but of a state charged with pursuing in time, with continuity, its work of social progress imbued with respect for these liberties.⁹

Further Education

FRANCE, like Britain during World War II, discussed the proposal that an administrative staff college should be set up to cater for higher officials, as well as the younger generation, where all might be improved in general knowledge and administrative technique. This was inopportune. But something like it, to fulfill the task of refreshing those long in the service was adopted in the *Centre des Hautes Études*, the Center of High or Advanced Studies. Its purpose is to re-educate and refresh officials who have been at work for some years in the technical and specialized and local services, those who have become blinkered through service in the same department for a long time. Its object is to bring them up to date, to enable them to widen their knowledge by the study of new problems, and to regain some breadth by mingling with officials from other services and with men from outside the service. The courses and classes fall into three categories: general administration of the services managed by government for metropolitan France; imperial problems, like the political, economic, social, intellectual, religious problems arising out of the relationship between metropolitan France and the overseas territories; the theory and practice of industrial enterprise and control by the State. Yet many important problems are studied in common by all those who attend the Center.

⁹ *Ibid.*, pp. 59 and 60.

The Center achieves its object by means of lectures, discussions, research work, practical in-service training in the administration and in private industry. A carefully formulated scheme of "secondment" and rotation, bringing persons from the localities and overseas to the capital, and sending some off abroad, is designed to lighten the monotony of their current careers.

The condition for entrance is to be between the ages of 30 and 45, and have at least six years of service; or, to make room for entrants from outside, of an equal time spent in private enterprise. A diploma certifies proficiency in the Center. It does not entitle its holder to office or promotion; but entrants from outside public administration, having gained a diploma, can use it as the qualification for entrance into the service.

Thus, it is hoped that the institution of the School will provide the regular entrants to the higher service from among the ninety or one hundred students accepted annually, and that the Center will help to revive the enthusiasm of the older generation. It must be borne in mind that these reforms are part of a renewal of the French State by men who took the leading part in the liberation and in very many cases the resistance against the German occupation. The whole is infused with a spirit of high endeavor and action. Extra marks are given to students for athletic prowess, especially for ability to pilot an airplane, or a glider, or to parachute-jump. The designations taken by some of the classes already entering the School give the pungent flavor of action: "Fighting France," "The French Union," the "Cross of Lorraine," the "United Nations."

Administration of the School

THE SCHOOL is housed in the former premises of the *École Libre des Sciences Politiques*. It is maintained at the expense of the State. Its first director is a noted resistance combatant, and one of General de Gaulle's former administrators in Brittany during the liberation.

The connection of the School and the

Center (for the time being the Center is administered by the director and council of the School) with the Government is exceedingly interesting. It is directly within the authority and under the aegis of the President of the Council of Ministers. Under the President a Direction of Public Service has been instituted to prepare the lines of a general policy for the public services and to build up documents and statistics. It formulates the coordination of status, principles of salary, pension schemes, the organization of the services. It is assisted by one commission composed of the personnel directors from the various departments, and another representing the professional organizations of the officials. Side by side with the Direction is a Permanent Council of Administration. It is charged with studying and elaborating a policy for the public services, and, under the authority of the Government, to impose it on the whole administrative system, and thereafter to supervise the fulfillment of the statute of the public services. It is the sole council of discipline for the officials of the services recruited by the School. It is composed of a chairman, who is a president of a section of the *Conseil d'Etat*, six officials (three nominated by the civil service unions) and two persons from outside the service. The members are appointed in the council of ministers each for six years.

The School itself is administered by a director and a council of administration. The former is appointed by decree made in the council of ministers, and he cannot be

dismissed without the reasoned decision of the School's council of administration. The council has as its chairman, *ex officio*, the vice-president of the *Conseil d'Etat*. It contains members from the universities, the officials, and persons from outside the service, all nominated by the Government. One of the officials is the Director of the Public Service, that is, the director of the bureau serving under the president of the council of ministers. Two of the officials are nominated by the civil service unions. The director of the School is assisted by an adjutant who is charged with the organization of the practical training of the students and to supervise their progress. The teachers at the School are drawn from the professors, administrators, and from outside these groups.

Conclusion

THIS DISCUSSION may well conclude with the remarks from a speech by the first director of the School on the occasion of the first commencement:

The School must be a great School, the great School, into which one will be proud to enter, and from which one will be glad to graduate, which will form the best, the most poised, the most humane, the most sound of men. For such, tomorrow, must be the splendid officials of which the nation has need.

It will be observed that here in France, as in Germany and in Britain, the problem of the higher administrative official is approached in an atmosphere of dedication to the State. It is interesting to compare this with the way the problem has been and is envisaged in the U. S. A.

An Experiment in Cooperative Examining . . . HARRY ALBERT

AN ADVENTURE in the relatively unexplored field of cooperative examining reached its climax one day last April, when civil service examinations for classes of stenographer and typist were administered simultaneously in the San Francisco Bay area cities of San Francisco, Oakland, Berkeley, Redwood City, and Martinez. The participating agencies in this cooperative examination were the California State Personnel Board (Junior and Intermediate Stenographer-Clerk and Junior and Intermediate Typist-Clerk), the San Francisco City and County Civil Service Commission (General Clerk-Stenographer and General Clerk-Typist), the San Mateo County Civil Service Commission (Typist-Clerk I and Stenographer-Clerk I), Contra Costa County Civil Service Commission (Typist-Clerk and Stenographer-Clerk), the City of Berkeley Personnel Board (Intermediate Stenographer-Clerk and Intermediate Typist-Clerk). The joint examination was truly cooperative in that by reading one examination announcement, filing one application blank, and taking one examination, qualified candidates who so desired could achieve eligibility on the registers of all of the participating agencies for all of the classes for which the examination was administered.

Committee Appointed

THE STORY of this venture started early in 1947, when Achille Albouze, then Chairman of the Civil Service Assembly's Western Regional Conference, appointed a "Committee on Inter-Agency Cooperation in Public Administration." The committee's assignment was to study the problems involved and to "report to the 1947 re-

gional meeting on the feasibility of developing cooperative projects in various phases of public personnel administration." Robert E. Culbertson, then Regional Personnel Representative, Social Security Administration, was made chairman of the committee.

In connection with his assignment, Mr. Culbertson called together the personnel directors of the public merit system agencies in the San Francisco Bay Area to discuss the general proposition of inter-agency cooperation. The meeting resulted in the establishment of an Intergovernmental Personnel Committee to provide an organization through which a cooperative project could be effected.

At the second meeting of the personnel directors it was decided that as a start, a cooperative examination could be held for classes of stenographer and typist some time in the fall of that year in conjunction with the State Personnel Board's already planned statewide examinations for stenographers and typists. Stenographer and typist classes were selected because it was felt that those classes would present a minimum problem in relating classification differences among participating agencies, and that the general area-wide need for eligibles would mean that all agencies would have an interest in participation. Though there was a general realization that these classes would present peculiar examining problems, the complexity of the technical and administrative problems which followed because of the nature of stenography and typing examining procedures was underestimated. A working committee composed of Eric Emery, Personnel Director, Contra Costa County Civil Service Commission; John England, Chief, Cooperative Service Unit, State Personnel Board; and Harry Albert, Assistant Personnel Di-

• Harry Albert is Assistant Personnel Director, San Francisco City and County Civil Service Commission.

rector, San Francisco Civil Service Commission, was selected to do the job.

A general invitation to all agencies in the area to participate in the joint examination resulted in acceptance by the agencies above mentioned. The federal government, through the Twelfth District Manager, declined for several reasons, among which were the complexity of their operations and their workload, which would not permit the release of personnel to work out the details of federal participation. Alameda County declined, noting that there was serious legal question as to their right to participate in such a project.

After some preliminary study by the members of the working committee, a meeting of representatives of the participating agencies was held on September 12, 1947. At that time the suggestion was made that because of the numerous complex problems involved, and because of a desire to meet a fall deadline, the earlier recommendation for the use of a joint announcement and application blank should be abandoned, and that each agency should use its own forms and procedures in announcing the joint examination. Cooperation would then have been pretty much confined to the use of an identical examination and central scoring procedure. After a good deal of discussion the decision was made that even though it would mean that the cooperative examination would have to be delayed until the following spring, work should be continued on the preparation of a joint announcement and application form. Influencing that decision was the fact that unless joint forms were prepared, a candidate would be called upon to read five announcements and file twelve application blanks. (In the meantime the State Personnel Board held its planned fall examinations for stenographers and typists, knowing there would still be need for further examinations the following spring.)

The resulting forms were the product of many hours of labor and numerous conferences, and represented a number of compromises, some trivial and some important,

on the part of all participating agencies. The State Personnel Board set April 17, 1948, as the date for statewide examinations for stenographer and typist, and this was accepted as the date on which the joint examination would be held in the San Francisco Bay Area.

Mechanics of Program

A BRIEF OUTLINE of the mechanics of the program as planned by the working committee and agreed upon by the participating agencies follows:

1. The special announcement and application form was to be printed by the state printing plant.¹
2. Each agency was to make its own distribution of the announcement and application forms and was to carry out its own recruiting and publicity program.
3. Applicants were to be permitted to file applications at the offices of any of the participating agencies. The agencies were to forward the applications to a central application office which was to be established in the offices of the San Francisco Civil Service Commission, where all applications were to be processed. The cooperating agencies were to lend clerical assistance to this task as might be required.
4. The examination was to consist of a qualifying typing test administered by the California State Employment Service, and the "Certificate of Proficiency" procedure which had been used so successfully by the State Personnel Board was to be incorporated into this examination. The stenography test was to be qualifying, and eligibility rank was to be based solely on the score on the written tests.
5. The same written and stenography tests that were to be administered by the State Personnel Board in its statewide examinations were to be used for this cooperative examination.
6. Notices of acceptance of application blanks and of admission to the cooperative

¹ Copies of the joint application form and examination announcement are available from the author.

examination were to be mailed from the central application office.

7. Each agency was to make its own physical examination arrangements.

8. The State Personnel Board would prepare instructions for administration of the examination and would mail necessary examination material to each examination center.

9. After the examination was given, all material was to be forwarded to the central office, and the San Francisco Civil Service Commission was to assume responsibility for rating the papers and preparing a master list, giving all information necessary in order to permit the participating agencies to establish their own eligible registers.

10. All examination papers and applications would be filed in the office of the San Francisco Civil Service Commission to be immediately available on call to any of the participating agencies. Agencies desiring copies of the application blanks for their own files would have copies photostated at their own expense.

11. Each agency would contribute funds in accordance with its pro rata share of the expenses of the examination. (In order to make possible the payment of a pro rata share of the expenses, the San Francisco Civil Service Commission, in accordance with legal provisions, requested its Board of Supervisors to pass a resolution approving participation in the cooperative examination, and requested each agency to sign a formal agreement.)

* * *

Following in general the planned outline, the examination was announced and held as scheduled. In June, 1948, the master lists of participants, indicating necessary information from which individual eligible registers could be prepared, were mailed to the cooperating agencies. All agencies used the critical score recommended by the State Personnel Board in establishing their own registers.

The accompanying table shows the overall volume of applicants, the number that successfully passed the examination, and the number that filed multiple applica-

tions and appeared on more than one eligible list.

NUMBER OF QUALIFIED ELIGIBLES RESULTING FROM JOINT EXAMINATION

I. For all classes:

| | |
|--------------------------------------|-----|
| Total applicants | 887 |
| Total qualified to participate | 781 |
| Total taking written test | 561 |
| Total number of eligibles | 473 |

II. Stenographer and Typist Group II (Intermediate):

| | |
|-----------------------------------|-----|
| (Two agencies participating) | |
| Stenographer—total eligible | 109 |
| Filed one agency | 64 |
| Filed two agencies | 45 |
| Typist—total eligible | 147 |
| Filed one agency | 81 |
| Filed two agencies | 66 |

III. Stenographer and Typist Group I (Junior):

| | |
|-----------------------------------|-----|
| (Four agencies participating) | |
| Stenographer—total eligible | 90 |
| Filed one agency | 50 |
| Filed two agencies | 20 |
| Filed three agencies | 14 |
| Filed four agencies | 6 |
| Typist—total eligible | 127 |
| Filed one agency | 74 |
| Filed two agencies | 24 |
| Filed three agencies | 17 |
| Filed four agencies | 12 |

Some Administrative Problems

THIS sketchy outline of the procedures in no way indicates the myriad problems that plagued the working committee through each step, and the number of hours of work and the numerous conferences that were devoted to making the cooperative examination an actuality. A complete recital here of all of the problems encountered in this project is neither possible nor proper, since there is no thought that we are now prepared to issue a manual on the methods and procedures to be followed in the conduct of a cooperative examination. But reference to some of the larger problems may be of interest as a general indication of the types of difficulties that had to be overcome. Such self-evident problems as the adjustment of examination schedules and classification differences are not discussed here.

One of the major difficulties was the loss of immediate control of the examination

processes by the individual participating agencies. Where the regular examining process follows established routine patterns, necessary adjustments can be handled within and by the responsible agency; in the joint examination, on the other hand, no procedures were available to deal with such contingencies.

An example of loss of control is illustrated by the delay of two months in the promulgation of the eligible register after the written examination was held. Though the papers were rated in the office of the San Francisco Civil Service Commission shortly after the official key was adopted, it was felt that the master eligible lists should be issued at the same time as the State Personnel Board was ready to issue the results of its statewide stenography and typing examinations. The state agency besieged with an unusually heavy program, and with other important deadlines to meet, delayed the work on its statewide stenography and typing examinations, resulting in the two months' lapse noted above. The individual participating agencies, though fully aware of the importance of creating the eligible lists as quickly as possible if such lists were to be effective, were unable to speed action since they had no control over the situation.

Aside from the labor involved in the preparation of the special examination announcement and applicant blank, there were numerous problems of adjustments in the practices of the various agencies in order to make the joint documents possible. For example, each agency normally required a separate application blank for each examination, i.e., Typists Grades I and II and Stenographers Grades I and II would call for four application blanks. In the joint examination it was not only agreed that one application blank would suffice, but it also was agreed that the applications could remain on file outside of the offices of four of the agencies. Three of the agencies, which used a system of notification cards filled out by the applicant at the time of completing the application blank, agreed to discard that procedure during

this examination. One of the agencies agreed to do without its time-honored oath to the application. Though all essential information was included on the joint application, each agency had to agree to a rewording and rearrangement of many items—items which had become standard fixtures based on years of experience. In the examination announcement, agencies had to agree to the elimination of much explanatory material which was routinely included in their individual standard examination announcements.

Though the details are too complicated to explain here, it is of interest to note that the problem of adjusting various procedures for requesting and recording veterans' preference proved so complex that for a time it seemed that the entire project must fail and be abandoned because of that single factor.

While there was some opposition to the project by individuals and groups within and without the participating agencies, such opposition did not prove to be serious or effective. On the other hand, there was favorable publicity in the form of news stories, and one major San Francisco daily newspaper ran a leading editorial commending the agencies for their effort.

When a group of agencies operates in a new field, as was done here, one of the problems that must be overcome is that of the subtle but constant fear on the part of those immediately responsible for the project of committing some oversight which might invalidate the entire effort, or which could bring embarrassment to one or all of the agencies—in other words, "pulling a prize boner." Luckily, in this particular project only one such act has come to light, and strangely enough no one is able to explain just how or at what point the mishap occurred. After the papers were rated, and when eligible lists were being prepared, it was discovered that whereas the stenography test in the joint examination was announced and administered as a qualifying test, in the State Personnel Board's statewide examinations the stenography test was announced and administered as a com-

petitive test! (The eligibles qualifying for State employment in the joint examination were to be merged with the eligibles on the lists resulting from the statewide examination.) This oversight was embarrassing but not fatal.

Appraisal of Results

THIS FIRST ATTEMPT in cooperative examining proved to be expensive in terms of man-hours of work and printing costs. Though actual cost figures are not yet available, it is certain that final figures will run well above the initial estimate of \$1,000 as the total cost of completing the project. It is also fairly certain that in terms of the number of available eligibles resulting from the cooperative examination, each agency would have found it more economical in this instance to have administered its own individual examination.

If we successfully managed to make a good deal of extra work for ourselves, if we raised innumerable problems that previously did not disturb us, if we spent more money than we expected, and if the resulting eligible lists were meager, the question may well be asked—was it worth it? The answer of those who were most intimately in touch with this project is, without qualification, "Yes."

Eric Emery, who deserves a word of praise for his stubborn insistence on completing the project when others felt and argued that the problems involved were too complex to solve, appraises the effort thus:

Agreement to the use of a joint announcement and joint application form was an accomplishment in cooperation. Each agency had to sacrifice established practices, some of which sprang from peculiar experiences and had deep roots in the agency's tradition. Review of such practices revealed that many of them had no value in present-day operation and could be discarded or amended. The result will undoubtedly be greater uniformity among Bay region agencies in announcement and application procedures.

There can be no doubt that steps are in order to eliminate the tremendous duplication of effort in certain localities among the various operating public personnel agencies. The resulting duplication of costs to taxpayers cannot be justified. Whether the joint examination program conducted in the San Francisco Bay Area is the answer may be debatable, but we need to be experi-

menting with steps toward cooperation so that we may come up with some workable program.

Russell Cooney of San Mateo County, in his appraisal of this effort, states:

Despite the fact that we were not enabled to fill very many vacant stenographer and typist jobs from the eligible lists resulting from this joint examination (primarily because applicants from other cities, who signified interest in appointment in San Mateo County, were not, in fact, available when offered appointment) we nevertheless feel no regrets at having had a part in the venture. As a matter of fact we are proud to have cooperated. This pioneering has shown the way for future projects of similar nature. For example, considerable thought is being given right now to hold joint examinations with San Mateo County and the nearby cities of the county, such as Burlingame, Redwood City and San Mateo cooperating.

Building a pilot boat, airplane, or other device is always expensive. It is the production line made possible by the experimentation which becomes profitable. Future joint ventures of this type should prove economical because we can use the knowledge and experience gained from the first one.

John Fisher of the State Personnel Board substantially agrees with those appraisals and has expressed an interest in continuing the experiment in some other selected classifications, since they are now embarking on a new experimental program to meet the problem of recruiting stenographers and typists.

Harry Rosenberg of Berkeley, who entered the picture at a late date, agrees with the appraisals and points out that those who partake of a cooperative program must stand ready to meet and overcome many forms of aggravation and irritation as the price of progress in the field of public personnel administration.

As for the writer, his reaction is that the effort was eminently worthwhile. The project *was* successful in that agencies representing different levels of government and geographically separated did carry through, and did from one examination process establish twelve individual registers. If there were those who said aloud, or to themselves, that such could not be done, this effort now answers that it has been done.

It would seem to be clear, and it is important to bear in mind, that the hazards and problems that were overcome in this first venture would, in a large measure, sim-

plify any further undertaking along these lines by the cooperating agencies. The experiment further indicates that, particularly in those situations where several agencies administer examining programs in the same geographic area, a cooperative examination program can be effected to the satisfaction of the agencies. As has been so aptly pointed out, competition and duplication of effort among public agencies in the same area cannot be justified if superior methods of dealing with recruiting problems are available. Certainly the ends sought are worth the effort and the gamble to seek the means.

Not to be overlooked in a venture of this type are such important by-products as getting to know one's neighbor very much better than would otherwise be possible, the critical re-evaluation of one's own established procedures, and the stimulation that comes from tackling a new, tough problem.

In the San Francisco Bay Area steps now are being taken to establish a Bay Area public personnel administrators' organization. It is expected that this organization will take over the work of the intergovernmental personnel committee and that further activity will be forthcoming in the field of cooperative examining.

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The New York State Internship Program . . . LYNTON K. CALDWELL

ESTABLISHED as part of a general policy of strengthening the public service through improved recruitment and training of personnel, the New York State internship program is now in its second year. The internships and the related program of graduate courses in public administration were announced by Governor Dewey in May, 1947. Both programs were under way by September 1947, although a few interns were appointed in July and August. The internship program is now administered on a July to July calendar.

Although the two programs operate independently of one another there is close coordination between them and a sponsoring committee of state and university officials is the governing board for both programs.¹ The graduate courses jointly offered by New York University and Syracuse University are open to qualified persons generally, and lead to the master's degree in public administration. The course instruction is primarily designed for persons in the permanent employment of the state, whereas internships have thus far been granted only to persons outside the permanent civil service, primarily to

young people who have just completed a year or more of graduate instruction in public administration in an institution of high standing. Both programs are essentially educational. Although New York State hopes to retain a high percentage of those interns who perform best in administrative situations Governor Dewey emphasized the broad training objective of the internships when he declared:

Whether the internes desire to enter State service after they have finished their training or whether they prefer to return to their localities, the end result will be the same—an increasing number of well-trained young people, familiar with the problems of public administration.

A number of the departments and agencies of New York State have over the years carried on specialized programs of internship and student assistance. The present internship program, however, is the first to be organized on a servicewide basis and primarily for the purpose of identifying and developing men and women with aptitude for general administration. Interns are appointed on a temporary basis to positions in those departments participating in the program and before the end of their internship are given opportunity to acquire permanent status in the service through open competitive examination.

Because the 1948-49 internships are being administered on the basis of experience gained during the first year of the program, the greater part of this article will describe the way in which the first group of interns were handled. The concluding portion of the article will contain a discussion of developments in the program for 1948-49, together with an evaluation of the program to date and a brief consideration of its prospects.

Organizing the Program

RESPONSIBILITY FOR THE actual organiza-

¹ John E. Burton, Director of the Budget, *Chairman*; Paul H. Appleby, Dean of the Maxwell School of Citizenship and Public Affairs, Syracuse University; J. Edward Conway, President of the New York State Civil Service Commission; Robert T. Lansdale, Commissioner of Social Welfare; Frank C. Moore, Comptroller; William J. Ronan, Director of the Graduate Division for Training in Public Service, New York University; Francis T. Spaulding, State Commissioner of Education.

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tion and operation of the program was given to the New York State Department of Civil Service. Because the press of duties did not permit the sponsoring committee to meet as frequently as the needs of the program required, the official members appointed alternates to meet together as a sub-committee and to work with the Department of Civil Service in the detailed development of the program. As the program continued, the coordinator of internship training, a special representative of the director of the Budget, and the chairman of the committee on professional training of the Capital District Chapter of the American Society for Public Administration were invited to meet with the sub-committee and representatives of the Department of Civil Service.

Although the sub-committee's area of jurisdiction covered all matters which the sponsoring committee might properly consider, its concern during the year 1947-48 was almost entirely with the internship program. The Assistant Administrative Director of the Department of Civil Service was executive-secretary of the sub-committee and prepared the agenda for committee meetings. The committee met on call as needed and a record of its deliberations and decisions was sent to all members of the sponsoring committee. Unless modified or reversed by the sponsoring committee, sub-committee recommendations were conclusive. Sub-committee members gave freely of time and attention to the program and worked together and with others associated with the program expeditiously and in complete harmony.

Recruitment and Appointment

THE ADOPTION of the program in late May, 1947, allowed little time for the recruitment of interns in colleges and universities. Before the end of the spring sessions, however, representatives of the civil service department were able to visit those institutions in the state from which internship candidates seemed most promising. Candidates were restricted to persons who would have completed the bachelor's de-

gree before appointment. Preferential consideration was given to graduate students and to those who had specialized in government, public administration, or in special fields of government service.

In July of 1947, a news release describing the internship program was sent to all higher educational institutions in New York State and subsequently to major universities throughout the country. Placement officers in the colleges were provided with application forms and interested students were invited to submit applications accompanied by official transcripts to the Department of Civil Service in Albany. The burden of screening applicants thus fell largely on the civil service department.

Experience with the first group of interns indicated the desirability of initial screening by college authorities. For the internship group commencing July 1, 1948 time permitted initial sifting of applicants in the colleges, and no applications for internship were accepted directly from students. The civil service department answered fully all inquiries concerning the program, but referred applicants to their respective institutions for application and recommendation.

Early in June the Department of Civil Service had begun negotiation with the administrative departments and agencies of the state to discover positions suitable for internship training. The maximum number of internships was limited to twenty-five at a base salary of approximately \$2,000.² Within this limit the actual number of internships was determined by the number of qualified candidates and the number of suitable positions available. Twenty-three interns were actually appointed.

No funds for internships had been provided in the 1947-48 state budget, and departments were therefore required to meet expenses out of their allocated funds subject to approval by the Division of the Budget. Departments wishing to participate in the program were invited to pre-

² This was raised to \$2,400 for the 1948-49 program.

pare descriptions of positions suitable for internships and to submit their proposals for consideration and approval by the sponsoring committee. When approved, these job descriptions were useful in the recruitment and selection of internship candidates.

Final appointment of all interns was a responsibility of the sponsoring committee. Nominations of candidates for appointment were made by the regular appointing officers in those departments in which internships had been established. On July 15, 1947, the first list of applicants for Public Administration Internships was sent to the appointing officers. The list was classified according to the qualifications of the applicants. Group A represented those considered the most likely candidates by representatives of the civil service department who interviewed them or reviewed their written applications. Group B included others who might be suitable candidates, but were less obviously qualified for general administrative assignments. Departments were not restricted to this list for the nomination of candidates.

The first list did not produce a sufficient number of appointments and a second and entirely new list was made available on September 15. Meanwhile, on August 12 a pooled interview was arranged at the State Office Building in Albany. Fifty applicants were on hand and fifteen state departments were represented. With a few exceptions the pooled interview and following appointments completed the organization and placement phases of the program.³

An indirect benefit from the recruitment of interns was the discovering of several persons with special qualifications needed by certain of the participating departments. The Department of Conservation, for example, discovered an applicant qualified for an unfilled position involving hard-to-find training in hydraulic en-

gineering. The internship program lost a candidate to the regular civil service, but the state gained a well qualified employee of which it had been in need.

Supervision and Guidance

SUPERVISION of individual interns was at first left to the departments in which they were placed, with the civil service department maintaining a general supervision of the program. In October, the sponsoring committee decided that a coordinator should be appointed to work with the departmental supervisors and the civil service department in developing the educational character of the program and to provide an independent source of guidance and counsel to interns.

In order to provide an interchange of ideas and experience among the interns and to acquaint them with problems of state government and public administration outside the purview of their departments, seminar meetings were held twice monthly with the coordinator. At many of these meetings representatives of various agencies of the state were invited to discuss the organization and activities of their departments. Members of the sponsoring committee, representing their own departments, also met with the interns.

Individual interviews were arranged between the interns and the coordinator. Although the coordinator was available for counsel with interns as needed, each intern was invited to review his situation with the coordinator and to prepare a brief written report on the progress of his internship. Each intern was asked to prepare a brief evaluation of his experience before the conclusion of his internship.

The coordinator likewise discussed each internship with each supervisor and wherever possible observed the intern at work. Supervisors were asked to fill out a questionnaire concerning each intern and to file it with the coordinator accompanied by their suggestions and evaluation of the intern's work. Developing difficulties were in this way caught in early stages and the civil service department

³ A pooled interview of candidates was held in New York City on October 15. Five internships were located in state offices in New York City.

had the viewpoints of intern, supervisor and coordinator to clarify any situation.

In the relations between the interns, their supervisors, and their work few difficulties developed during the first year of the program. The machinery which had been provided proved adequate to handle those situations which required special attention. Not all interns developed to the satisfaction of their departments, but several were saved from shipwreck by timely assistance.

Where interns did not measure up to expectations, personality difficulties usually provided in part an explanation. Not all supervisors fully appreciated the broad educational objective of the program and not all interns showed the adaptability to people and situations which administrative success usually requires. But most interns and supervisors worked well together and it was not found necessary to drop any intern from the program.

Interns were expected, although of course not required, to remain in the state service during the year of their internship. Two interns resigned to accept more remunerative positions outside the state service and one of the two girls appointed resigned to be married. A fourth intern resigned to accept a provisional appointment in the state service. One of the four resignations came early enough in the program to permit a new appointment; the other three internships were left unfilled.

Types of Work Experience

WORK ASSIGNED to interns varied considerably among the departments. During the first year of the program few interns worked in more than one department. Although an advantage in rotation of assignments in several major departments was recognized, budgetary procedures and insufficient time to plan handicapped interdepartmental transfer of interns during the first year. During the 1948-49 program, the hindering difficulties have largely been resolved and more interdepartmental rotation of interns is expected.

During the first year the greatest variety

of work assignments was offered by the Department of Civil Service, where interns worked in several of the divisions and units. Sufficient time was allowed in each division to enable the intern to follow through a complete cycle of the division's work.

In the Classification Division interns followed the study of a position from the initial receipt of a request for reclassification to final action by the Classification Board. Interns assisted the representatives of the Classification Division in the study of the position in the field and participated in the actual work to the greatest possible extent. Similarly in the Salary Standardization Board interns followed an issue from initial petition to final board action.

In those departments where rotation of interns among several divisions was not undertaken, work experience was frequently supplemented by special lectures, classes and field assignments. Two interns in the Division of the Budget were given a two-week course at the International Business Machine school at Endicott, New York. An intern in the Department of Commerce attended numerous planning conferences throughout New York State and was sent to the sessions for local planning officials conducted by the Westchester County Department of Planning. A series of lecture-conferences with departmental officials and division heads was arranged for the interns assigned to the Department of Audit and Control.

Several interns undertook assignments which had been unfulfilled because departments lacked proper personnel to carry them through. The magazine *Correction*, which had suspended publication during World War II, was revived and edited by an intern in the Department of Correction. The New York State Library was able to make a survey of library resources in the state offices in New York City through the assistance of an intern. Although these were not accomplishments broadly administrative in character, they involved detailed experience with par-

ticular types of administration and resulted in benefit to the state service.

Avenues to Permanent Appointment

APPOINTMENT to an internship carried no guarantee of permanent state employment. The formal obligation of the state did not go beyond providing opportunity for each intern to qualify through regular examination procedures for appointment to the permanent civil service. Those interns who wished to remain in the state service were advised to take all examinations for which they were eligible. Most interns took the college series of examinations for Professional and Technical Assistant given in March, 1948. This college series was particularly devised to attract qualified graduates in the classes of 1948. Primarily designed as a test of intelligence, the examinations permitted the election of certain specialties and provided weightings in the several portions of the examinations appropriate to each specialty.⁴ Considered only in relation to the internship program, the results of the examination were curious. Of nineteen interns who took the examinations seven made a passing score in at least one of the several specialties. Only three out of sixteen interns passed the administrative specialty and none of these had been primarily trained in administration in college. Two, in fact, were English majors and one had majored in general political science. Whether the administrative specialty was a valid test of administrative capability or whether the interns were not as well qualified for administrative responsibility as had been hoped may be debated. Certain it is that those who passed the examination were of first-rate intelligence, but some of the interns who failed to make a passing score were particularly well qualified for administrative assignments in the opinion of all who had observed their work and they had proved superior in performance on the job.

⁴The specialties were twelve in number: administration, bacteriology, chemistry, economics, education, engineering, journalism, law, library science, recreation, social service and statistics.

Before the college series of examinations had been given, the civil service department considered the possibility of providing an examination to be held for interns and similarly qualified persons at a \$3000 salary level. Emphasis in this examination would be on administrative knowledge and experience. The sponsoring committee recommended that the departments be canvassed to determine how many available jobs in the state service required the type of background gained through internship and that a list of these jobs be given to the committee. All were agreed that these job availabilities should not block existing promotion lines. However as late as July 1, 1948 no final decision had been reached regarding the practicability of this examination as an avenue to permanent employment.

Retrospect: 1947-48

THE FIRST YEAR of the New York State internship program was more successful than might have been expected, even though the procedure was in large measure experimental. The handicap of a late start could not altogether be overcome. Recruitment earlier in the spring would probably have resulted in a somewhat better qualified internship group. Previous internships in New York had been of specialized character rather than pointed toward general administrative experience. Although the program benefited from the experience of other internship arrangements, particularly those undertaken by the National Institute of Public Affairs, the applicability of these programs to circumstances in Albany was limited.

The task of identifying situations suitable for internship experience is a major responsibility in any internship program. As no special jobs were created for the New York interns, appropriate positions had to be found in the existing structure of the state departments. Some interns would have liked to have received more direct administrative experience than was possible in the positions to which they were assigned.

General administrative positions are not numerous in any jurisdiction, and situations among those suitable for internships are fewer still. So far as possible, interns were located in the major staff agencies of the state (budget, civil service, audit and control) or in staff positions (personnel or finance units) in the line departments. The search for positions in which administrative experience can be gained by a relatively inexperienced student has stimulated the departments to look more closely at their own organization and allocation of responsibilities, and the 1948-49 internships will be better adapted to the needs of the program than was possible during the first year.

Suggestions for internships in special subject-matter phases of administration were not approved by the sponsoring committee. Because the program was designed to discover administrative generalists, the committee held that internships for specialists in education, health, welfare or any of the particularized responsibilities of the state were beyond the scope of the existing program. Interns were encouraged to broaden rather than to intensify their experience during their internship, although the desire to qualify for appointment to available positions involving specialties led some to emphasize the subject-matter element in their work.

From the beginning all concerned recognized that the selection of capable supervisors was as essential to the success of the program as the appointment of promising interns. To find supervisors at once able administrators, good teachers, and skillful practitioners of the art of human relations, and to find them in the places suitable for internships, was perhaps the most difficult task in the organization of the program. The supervisors to whom interns were assigned were a co-operative and conscientious group and made time in the busy routine of their regular duties for the direction of the interns' work.

There had been some fear that the spe-

cial treatment accorded to interns might give rise to a feeling among the older state employees that the interns were beneficiaries of unwarranted privilege. Few interns found resentment among the permanent employees of the state, and then only during the first few days of internship where the objectives and character of the program had not yet been fully explained to the personnel of a particular unit. As the promotion opportunities of permanent employees were carefully protected and as interns could qualify for permanent status in the service only through regular examination procedures, no occasion for serious employee objection to the interns arose. Several proposals to extend certain of the benefits of internship to regular state employees were however placed before the sub-committee of the sponsoring committee. One of these was a program of educational leaves and scholarships designed to assist capable state employees to secure advanced academic training at appropriate educational institutions throughout the country or abroad.

Prospect: 1948-49

THE SECOND YEAR of the New York internship program benefited from the experience of the first year and from time to prepare adequately for the second group of interns. Recruitment began in January instead of May, and nearly all appointments had been made well in advance of the beginning of the new group in July. The method of screening and placement followed the pattern worked out in 1947 but with details perfected.

A variation in the 1948-49 program was provision for a maximum of five internships to be recruited from non-residents of New York. Three members of the sponsoring committee were asked to nominate out-of-state interns and to secure recommendations regarding applicants from colleges and universities across the country. To facilitate the canvass, the states were grouped into six sections and each of the three committee members recruited in

two of the sections which were assigned to him. Two non-resident interns had been appointed by July 1, 1948.

Provision had been made in the 1948-49 budget for all interns to be paid out of funds allocated to the Civil Service Department. This arrangement strengthened the supervisory position of the department and facilitated the transfer and rotation of interns among departments. Prior to the arrival of the second group of interns a meeting was arranged between the departmental supervisors of interns, officials of the Department of Civil Service and the coordinator. The past year's experience was reviewed and plans for the new group were outlined. All matters of policy and administrative procedure in the program were discussed and where necessary clarified.

The second group of interns began their year on July 1, 1948, with a two-day orientation session. All interns, including those assigned to New York City offices, met in Albany. After a message of greeting by the President of the Civil Service Commission, representing the sponsoring committee, the organization and operating mechanics of the program were outlined by the Assistant Administrative Director of the Department of Civil Service. The director of the New York State Library, the president of the local chapter of the American Society for Public Administration, and the coordinator discussed various phases of the program with the interns, who were encouraged to acquaint themselves rapidly with the responsibilities and procedures of New York State government. On the second day of the orientation session the interns reported to their

respective departments, where they were introduced to the more specialized personnel and activities with which they would at least initially be concerned.

There is no disposition in Albany to consider the present form of the internship program as final. Its pattern has been adapted to fit the needs of the New York State service. Extraordinary employment opportunities, veterans preference, state residence requirements—these are some of the factors that have influenced the character of the program. Changes in these circumstances will be reflected in future changes in the internships.

Probably the most significant developments in the second year of the internship program were the allocation of the supporting funds to the budget of the civil service department, the opening of the program to out-of-state residents, and the provision of a general orientation session for interns.

The value of an internship program in administration is difficult to assay. If it is to justify its use in place of normal employment procedures it must more surely indicate administrative capability and more rapidly inculcate administrative skill and judgment. Probably the subsequent careers of an internship group are the best measure of the all-around effectiveness of an internship program. For this final evaluation New York will have to wait five, perhaps ten or fifteen years. Meanwhile, the opportunity of the civil service department and other participating departments to experiment with more than customary freedom in the perfection of their personnel procedures has added substantially to the value of the program.

Testing for Administrative and Supervisory Positions

MILTON M. MANDELL

AMONG ALL occupational groups, first place has to be given to the supervisory and administrative groups in terms of their relative importance in the successful operation of all types of organizations. No organized effort is possible without effective administration and supervision, and the larger the organization the more important these groups are. If these statements are correct (and their frequent repetition has made them platitudes by now), then the development of valid methods for the selection of administrative and supervisory personnel is of first-level importance for those engaged in personnel administration. It is the purpose of this brief article to describe various selection methods with which the United States Civil Service Commission has experimented for whatever help this information might be to those engaged in selection work elsewhere. The materials developed for supervisory selection have been used widely in open-competitive and promotion examinations for trades and white-collar supervisory positions; the materials on administrative selection are still in an early experimental stage.

Supervisory Selection

FOLLOWING is a brief description of the various tests that have been developed and used in the selection of supervisors:

Supervisory Judgment. This test consists of problems in two broad fields—employee-supervisor relations, and personnel administration from the viewpoint of the supervisor. The latter involves such problems as the training, utilization, and placement of

employees, and the rating of employee performance. The questions stress judgment rather than factual knowledge, and an attempt has been made to put the problems in practical rather than academic terms. Satisfactory results have been obtained in studies of the relationships between scores on this test and supervisory performance.

Reading Comprehension. The factors involved in reading comprehension seem to be related to successful performance as a supervisor in the trades and clerical fields. It is suggested that the reading materials for such items come from either the field of supervision and management only, or from that field and, in addition, from the substantive field in which the supervisor will work. Evidently the amount of reading required in a supervisory position is such that ability in this field, as measured by a written test, is important for supervisory success.

Agency Organization, Personnel, and Policies. This test attempts to measure the candidate's factual information regarding the organization structure, the key personnel, and the basic operating policies of the organization in which he works. The test can be used only for internal placement and promotion, since it is based on information which is known only by employees. The theory is offered that it is an objective form of an interest test in that it measures knowledge which is probably acquired, not on the basis of intelligence or technical proficiency, but on the basis of interest in the administrative aspects of an employee's work environment. The idea for this test came from a study conducted by the Procter and Gamble Company which indicated that this item type produced more satisfactory results for the selection of supervisors than any other type included in the

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study. This test has also been used to predict administrative ability in both line and staff work. The test is simple to prepare and only about 20 minutes are needed for its administration.

Here is an example illustrating the type item that such a test might contain:

The Federal Home Loan Bank System is under:

- A) Federal Housing Administration
- B) Federal Home Loan Bank Administration
- C) Federal Public Housing Authority
- D) Defense Homes Corporation
- E) Home Owners' Loan Corporation

Subject-Matter Test. The production responsibilities of the supervisor are such that he has to have a substantial amount of knowledge of the field in which he is supervising. He has the problem of training and rating his employees, and inspecting their work. At the first, second, and third levels of supervision, human relations and organizing skill have to be accompanied by technical knowledge. If this premise is correct, and studies by life insurance companies and the Air Force indicate that it is correct, a subject-matter test would seem to be an appropriate part of a supervisory selection battery.

Interest Inventory. It is improbable that a formal interest inventory can be weighted in a civil service examination; yet determining the interests of candidates for supervisory positions seems essential in order to achieve maximum potential validity. Two types of interest patterns, one negative, and one positive, seem to be related to supervisory success. The negative aspects relate to interest in the technical aspects of the work. Professor Strong's work on the interests of administrators indicates, and this can be extended to supervisors, that those who have high interest levels in their own field, if it is a technical field, tend to be the poorer administrators.¹ Conversely, those who in a technical field have a high level of interest in people-minded occupations, such as personnel work, or who, as Pro-

fessor Thurstone's work indicates, have a high level of interest in current problems as measured by the Allport-Vernon *Scale of Values*, tend to be the better administrators. Perhaps in a civil service jurisdiction the interview can be used to measure these interests.

Interviews. Three types of interview methods have been developed recently, all of which seem useful for supervisory and administrative selection. The interview method developed by the Army for officer selection for the post-war Army involves the use of standard and follow-up questions. Much of the validity of this interview is probably due to the rating forms used, which are the best this writer has seen. The first part of the rating involves the use of a three-point scale on a number of specific factors demonstrated during the interview; the second part involves underlining specific descriptive words, both positive and negative, which describe the performance of the candidate during the interview; the final part involves an over-all judgment of the rater on a few important factors.

The second type of interview method, the Group Oral Performance Test, was described in an earlier issue of this magazine.² Since the writing of that article, reports on its wide use in British industry and in the New York State Department of Civil Service have become available. It is in use by the British Civil Service Commission for administrative and foreign service selection.

The final interview method, which was demonstrated at the 1948 Eastern Regional Conference of the Civil Service Assembly, involves the use of the Interaction Chronograph. The Chronograph method involves measuring the Tempo, Activity Rate, Dominance, Initiative, and Rate of Adjustment of the candidate to the interviewer's actions. Time of action and reaction, rather than the nature, of the candidate's responses, are recorded in a twenty-

¹ See E. K. Strong, Jr., *Vocational Interests of Men and Women*; and "Interests of Public Administrators" by the same author in *Public Personnel Review*, July, 1945.

² See Milton M. Mandell, "The Group Oral Performance Test." *Public Personnel Review*, October, 1946, p. 209-12.

five minute interview. The Chronograph method was developed by Eliot D. Chapple of Harvard University, who has used this method extensively for the selection of supervisors in a number of occupations.

Administrative Selections

A NUMBER of the methods described under supervisory selection have been identified as having value for administrative selection. In addition, the following selection methods may be of value:

Analysis of Organization Problems. This is a non-factual written test which attempts to measure the candidate's understanding of broad administrative problems, rather than his knowledge of specific administrative techniques. Many of the questions present administrative problems in such areas as line-staff relationships, central office-field office relationships, the organization problems of the office of the bureau chief or president of a company, and so forth. The task of the candidate is generally to determine the reason for the existence of a problem, to anticipate what problems may accompany a particular situation, or to solve a problem. This test has been tried out experimentally on a number of different groups in staff work and line administration; the validity coefficients have been consistently in the area of $+0.5$ with one coefficient, for twenty line administrators, at $+0.68$.

Example

Which one of the following administrative situations or problems will most probably occur when direct relations are permitted between a staff specialist employed by the national office of an organization and the operating officials employed in the field offices?

(A) Decrease in the feeling of responsibility of national office specialists for the operation of field programs in their specialties

(B) Inadequate technical supervision of field office operations

(C) Inadequate knowledge in the national office of the competence and qualifications of field office personnel

(D) Difficulty in keeping the relations on an advisory basis

(E) Subordination of professional considerations to general administrative responsibilities.

Interpretation of Data. This test, which requires the candidate to evaluate the soundness of conclusions based on statistical tables and charts, was developed by the Progressive Education Association. It seems to evaluate an important administrative ability; namely, the interpretation of statistical reports from the point of view of the administrator, rather than of the statistician. The results obtained in the experimental use of this test have not been consistently good; the test is sufficiently promising, however, to justify further experimentation.

General Information. The general information of the administrator seems to be important to his success. The Cooperative Test Service test in this area would seem to measure aspects of knowledge and interests which are important in administrative performance. Some satisfactory data on the validity of this test have been obtained.

Evaluation of Statements. This test is based on one of the tests included in the *Roback Mentality Tests for Superior Adults* which was published in 1921. The subject is given a number of statements and is asked to read the statements and determine into which one of the following categories it falls: (a) A *striking* or *significant* statement; (b) a *commonplace* or *obvious* statement; (c) an *absurd* statement; (d) a *tautological* statement, i.e., the latter part repeating the thought of the first part; or (e) a *joke* or *ludicrous* contradiction. This test has been tried out in one study in which the subjects were forty-two personnel specialists in various grades. The product-moment correlation between test scores and job performance ratings, based on a short test of 18 items, was $+0.4$. It is the writer's theory that this is a test of sophistication as related to interpersonal relations, and that it measures in objective form an important part of what is usually included in the definition of social intelligence.

Personnel Analysis. This test was developed to measure objectively the insight into personality characteristics which is re-

quired of all staff people, as well as supervisors and administrators. The test is presented in the following manner:

One-paragraph descriptions of the working behavior of five employees are given. A number of statements similar to the following are then given: "Likely to become erratic when pressure is put on him." The subject is asked to indicate, for each one of these statements, which one of the five employees described at the beginning of the test is *most* likely to react in this manner, and which one is *least* likely to do so.

Vocabulary. The contribution of a vocabulary test to administrative selection varies with the nature of the administrative job and the other written tests that are included in the examination. If a highly verbal test which also measures other aspects of administrative ability is included in the examination, it is doubtful that a vocabulary test would add an appreciable amount to the final examination results. If the contents of the written

test are selected on the basis of a factor approach, then it is highly probable that a vocabulary test will contribute to selection for these positions.

Conclusion

THE DEVELOPMENT of improved methods for the selection of supervisory and administrative personnel is probably the most challenging task of those engaged in examining work. It is believed that the above tests, based on the results thus far obtained in studies of their usefulness, can contribute to this problem. It is also important that additional functions of administrative and supervisory performance be tested, since there is no reason to believe that these tests provide information on all the complex traits that should be measured. The validation data thus far obtained indicate that reliable criteria can be obtained and that these tests can furnish statistically significant results.

The California State Deputy Directors' Conference . . .

WILLIAM K. SMITH

PUBLIC personnel administration is—and by its very nature must be—an integral and inseparable part of the day-to-day management of a public agency. The California State Personnel Board believes this and its program of personnel management is based on this concept.

The California state constitution and the statutes of the state place certain responsibilities on the State Personnel Board for the administration of a state-wide personnel merit system. The Board realizes, however, that its efforts will have only limited value unless persons in administrative and supervisory positions in the various agencies of the state government carry on programs of personnel management within their organizations. The Board realizes that the personnel responsibilities inherent in the day-to-day management responsibilities of those in charge of state agencies are as great as or, if anything, greater than those of the Board.

Because personnel management is so inextricably a part of management, it is the Board's belief that anything done to improve management in the state government will most likely bring with it improved personnel management. Or, to state it a little differently, the seeds of good personnel management can flourish and bring forth the best fruit only when sown in good management soil.

There is another concept that is basic to the Personnel Board's personnel management program. The traditional idea in the minds of most state administrators and employees is that the state government is merely an aggregate of many agencies that function largely as independent entities. This idea tends to permeate all administra-

tive actions—including personnel. The administrators and employees consider they owe their first and primary allegiance to the agency in which they work. They have only a vague feeling of being employees of the state, and that feeling seldom ever becomes more definite than that. The Personnel Board's program of personnel management, however, is based on the concept that the state of California is one employer: the forty thousand state employees are essentially employees of the state of California and secondarily employees of the agency in which they work.

The conference described in this article is largely the outgrowth of an attempt to apply the foregoing principles. The conference is designed to provide a means (1) for improving management within the various state agencies; (2) for improving and coordinating inter-agency administrative management; and (3) for bringing top-level administrators in the various state agencies to realize that they are not operating separate enterprises, but are administering one segment of the over-all program of services rendered by the state to its citizens.

Former Inter-Departmental Conference

THE PRESENT Deputy Directors' Conference may be traced more or less directly to a former conference known as the Inter-Departmental Conference. This latter conference was organized in the spring of 1940 and held meetings on a fairly regular basis for about four years. This conference was the outgrowth of a series of conference leader training courses.

The Inter-Departmental Conference had no official status. It was an informal group that met half on state time and half on the employees' own time. It started with the members of the several conference leader

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training courses and soon increased in size to include one or more representatives of most of the state agencies that had their headquarters in Sacramento. The purpose of the conference was to provide a means for exchanging ideas on administrative and operating problems of common interest.

Because of its objective analyses and informative discussions, this informal and unofficial conference soon became recognized as an invaluable forum for the expression of ideas and the formulation of improvements in statewide and agency policies and practices. During the latter years of the war, however, the meetings of this group became less frequent and eventually ceased. In retrospect, it is quite evident that the principal reason for its deterioration was that, because of increased pressure of work, administrative officials found it impossible to attend the meetings and sent others to represent their agencies. The membership of the group gradually changed from one composed almost entirely of supervisory and administrative employees to a group in which clerical employees predominated. As this change occurred, the discussions lost much of their value. The discussions centered more and more around the clerical and detailed aspects of problems rather than the management phases.

Development of Deputy Directors' Conference

THE VALUE of such a conference, however, were well demonstrated in the early years of its existence. Accordingly, when the State Personnel Board in 1947 was looking for some means of improving personnel management in the state service, it was only natural that consideration should be given to reviving the former Inter-Departmental Conference. For the reason just given, it was immediately recognized that it would not be desirable to revive it as it had existed in its later stages. In fact, the more the idea was considered, the more evident it became that the most effective conference would be one composed entirely of

persons holding high administrative posts in the state service.

The highest administrative positions in the executive branch of the California state service are the posts of the directors of the various departments. Because the time of the directors is largely devoted to major policy determinations and to contacts with persons and organizations interested in the activities of their agencies, it was decided that a group composed of such officials would not be the most desirable for a conference of the type sought. The deputy directors hold the positions next below the directors. For all practical purposes the deputy director in most agencies coordinates and directs the day-to-day administrative operations of the agency. The kind of management in the agency is very often largely determined by the extent to which the deputy director or deputy administrator knows, understands, and practices good management principles. These officials seemed to be exactly the ones needed for an effective conference.

Rather than organize a conference for deputy directors and invite the major agencies to send representatives, it was felt best to start by discussing the idea with the directors of several departments and with some of the deputy directors who would be logical members of such a conference. With this in mind, the State Training Officer had lunch with three of the deputy directors, and posed one question as to whether they believed any purpose would be served by the holding of periodic meetings of the deputy directors of the larger agencies. Their off-hand reactions were that their problems were almost entirely of a specialized character and peculiar to their own agencies. They believed that there was so little common ground that a conference of deputy directors could at best have only limited value. Also, they mentioned that the pressure of work in their agencies was so great that they did not see how they could afford to take any time out from their schedules to attend such meetings. The discussion was dropped there. During the course of the luncheon, however, the

three deputies fell to discussing certain of their problems. By the time the luncheon was finished, they had already settled on two or three problems that they would welcome the opportunity of discussing with persons holding corresponding positions in other agencies. Each asked that he be invited to become a member of such a conference if one was organized.

Following this preliminary meeting, the State Training Officer, fortified with the topics suggested, discussed the proposed conference with the directors of several agencies and with the deputy directors of each of the major agencies. Some were rather skeptical when the idea was first mentioned, but after a short discussion, all favored the establishment of such a conference and wanted their agencies represented.

Conference Organized

A PERSONAL LETTER was sent to the deputy director of each of eighteen selected agencies, confirming the verbal invitation and indicating the time and place of the first meeting. Attached to each letter was a mimeographed list of the persons who had indicated a desire to participate in the conference. The list showed both the title of the position held by the individual and his agency. Attached also was a list of topics that members of the group had suggested as possible subjects for future meetings of the group.

Fourteen of the eighteen persons invited were in attendance for the first meeting of the conference. Most of the meeting was devoted to the introduction of the members of the conference. Each member gave a thumbnail sketch of his employment experience, of the functions of his agency, and his ideas as to how the conference could serve its most useful purpose. At the first meeting, the group was asked what type of record they wanted kept on the proceedings of the meetings. At first, several members favored a verbatim transcript, but in the end all agreed it would tend to hamper discussions since members would not be willing to "think out loud." The group decided that the secretary

should merely keep a short record of the significant points brought out in each meeting. Based on this discussion, it is the practice to write the minutes in an informal narrative style and not to identify in the minutes the person who made recorded comments or suggestions unless such identification is essential to the meaning of the item. This anonymity has been well received and has been a decided factor in bringing about a feeling of freedom in the expression of ideas.

The group decided to meet monthly, and the second Tuesday of each month was selected as the regular meeting date. After considerable discussion, it was agreed that the meetings should be held during working hours—from 9:30 a.m. to noon. The thought was expressed that the meetings might better be held in the evening. However, in the end it was agreed that "if the conferences are worth holding at all, they are worth holding during work hours."

At its second meeting, the conference elected a chairman and a vice-chairman. The group asked the State Training Officer to serve as its permanent secretary. In order to keep the organization informal and as flexible as possible during its formative stages, the group agreed not to formulate or adopt any type of written by-laws. It was further agreed that the topics discussed should be administrative in character. Where a matter of policy is involved, it was agreed that the discussion should be limited to a clarification of the problem and a marshalling of all the pertinent facts. In no event would the group take any action on any matter that would be regarded as binding on its members. While greater uniformity in administrative practices was recognized as one of the major objectives of the conference, the members believed the desired uniformity should and would voluntarily come from a common and complete understanding of all phases of the problem.

Membership of Conference

ALTHOUGH the eighteen agencies represented in the conference as it was originally

constituted had 95 per cent of the employees in the executive branch of the state service, the conference members felt that if the conference were to serve its greatest purpose, there should be representatives from the Governor's Office and from the larger of the "independent" agencies. Accordingly, the secretary of the conference was asked to invite fourteen other agencies, including the Governor's Office, to designate their deputy administrators to represent them. This increased coverage of the conference to 99 per cent of the employees in the executive branch of the state government, and raised the membership of the conference to thirty-two.

Another important decision reached with reference to membership in the conference covered the question of who should represent the agency when, for one reason or another, the regular member was unable to attend. After considerable discussion it was agreed (1) that each member of the conference would name an alternate who would attend when the member could not be present; (2) that the alternate named would be a person holding an appropriate administrative position; and (3) that if for any reason the member or his alternate were unable to attend a meeting, the agency would go unrepresented at that meeting. Since the disintegration of the former Inter-Departmental Conference was due largely to the fact that administrative employees had sent clerical employees to represent their agencies when they themselves could not attend, this decision has real significance.

A few observations about the civil service status and the state experience of the members of this conference will perhaps give some idea of the type of individuals that make up the group. Of its thirty-two members, thirteen hold their present positions with permanent civil service status; twelve now hold positions exempt from civil service, but prior to their appointments held permanent civil service status in some other administrative positions. (Under the California State Civil Service Act, these individuals have the right to re-

turn to their former civil service positions upon the termination of their exempt appointments.) The remaining seven persons hold positions exempt from civil service and have not previously had civil service status in any other state position.

The members of the conference have had a total of 542 years of state service, or an average of just slightly under seventeen years. Four members of the conference have had between thirty and thirty-five years of state service; seven have had between twenty-five and twenty-nine years; three have had between twenty and twenty-four years; three have had between fifteen and nineteen years; five have had between ten and fourteen years; six have had between five and nine years; and four have had less than five years of state service. The administrative experience in the state service of the group totals 378 years, or an average of just under twelve years. Seven members have had between twenty and twenty-four years of administrative service in the state; eight have had between fifteen and nineteen years of such service; three have had between ten and fourteen years of such service; four have had between five and nine years of such service; and ten have had less than five years of administrative experience in the State service.

While most of the conference members have their headquarters in Sacramento, seven members come from San Francisco, which is ninety miles west of Sacramento. One comes from Los Angeles, which is four hundred miles south of Sacramento.

Conduct of Meetings

AT EACH conference session, the group decides on the discussion topic for the following meeting. Approximately ten days before each meeting, a combined notice and agenda for the meeting is sent to the membership. This notice-agenda is prepared by the secretary in collaboration with the chairman. Copies of the proposed minutes of the preceding meeting are attached to the notice-agenda. Several days before the meeting, a telephone call is made to each

member reminding him of the conference session.

Since one of the objectives of the conference is to help break down the artificial barriers between agencies by getting the deputies acquainted with each other, considerable emphasis has been placed on introductions. Both before and after each of the early meetings of the conference, the State Training Officer made it a point to make as many personal introductions as possible. Also, name cards are used; these cards, placed on the table in front of each member, give the name of the member and his agency. Also a list of the telephone numbers of the members located in Sacramento has been distributed to each member.

The sessions are conducted as informal discussion conferences. The group decided against the extensive use of committees on the theory that the conference itself is really a committee of the whole. However, it has already found it desirable to have a committee study and report to the conference on a specific problem. In this particular instance, no opposition was raised to the use of a committee and there can be no question but that the procedure proved to be very effective.

The general pattern for the presentation and consideration of a subject at a meeting calls for one or more members of the conference to present the factual background of the topic. The chairman of the conference then leads the discussion. For example, at the first of the two meetings held on the procedure involved in the payment of vendors, three members of the conference presented the factual side, each from the standpoint of the part his agency plays in the process. In the California state service, the payment system provides for the vendor to send his bill to the agency. The agency in turn submits a claim for the payment of the bill to the State Controller through the Bureau of Purchases of the Department of Finance. The State Controller issues the payment warrant. In order to cover this entire picture, the deputy director of one of the operating depart-

ments described the procedure followed in his agency as typical of that followed in all operating agencies. The Deputy Director of Finance next explained the procedure followed in the Bureau of Purchases and, last, the Deputy State Controller explained the processes in his office leading up to the drawing of the warrant for payment.

At one of its early meetings, the group also decided against the extensive use of outside speakers. It was the general consensus that the group itself included specialists in almost all of the fields which would be covered by the conference discussions.

Although authorities on conference leading will point out that a 32-member group is too large for the best type of conference discussion, participation by the various members has been exceptionally good. Securing proper meeting facilities for a group of this size, however, has offered a real problem. It is difficult to secure facilities where all members can be seated around a conference table in conformity with good conference practice. The present meeting place is a large legislative committee room. Tables are arranged in the form of a capital E, with all members seated at the tables. This still is not the most desirable arrangement, but it is by far the best facilities the conference has been able to obtain to date.

Another principle established by the conference to guide its sessions is that the meetings shall begin promptly at the announced starting time and adjourn promptly at the announced adjournment time.

Conference Topics

AT THE TIME this is being written, nine meetings of the conference have been held. Two sessions were devoted primarily to introductions and the organization of the conference. One was devoted to an analysis of the problem of overtime for professional, technical, and administrative classes. One was devoted to a consideration of the new report of performance system which was about to be introduced in the state service. Two were devoted to the

problem of improving and speeding up the procedure for the payment of vendors from whom merchandise has been purchased by the state. One was devoted to a consideration of several suggested ways of improving the payroll procedure in the state service. One was devoted to the question of how the deputy head of an agency can bring about the greater and more effective use of the probationary period in his agency. And the last meeting was spent in discussing the policies and supposition to be followed in preparing the agency budget requests for the fiscal year 1949-1950.

At its next meeting, the conference will consider the subjects: "What are the arguments for and against a recognized program of rest periods for office employees?" and "In what ways can state agencies improve their procedures for the servicing of their automatic equipment?"

Other subjects the conference has indicated a desire to discuss in the immediate future include the following: What should state agencies do about granting extra and unofficial time off to employees around the Christmas and New Year holidays? What steps can an agency take to establish and maintain good working relationships with members of the press? What methods can an administrator use to make sure that statements of agency policy get down to the lowest levels of the agency without distortion? What methods can an administrator use to be sure that there is a free and accurate flow of information up from the lowest levels in the agency to the highest? What methods can an administrator use to make sure that the policies of the agency are being applied uniformly and accurately throughout his entire agency? What are some of the ways by which a deputy administrator can keep his fingers on the pulse of his agency without getting burdened with detail?

Accomplishments To Date

IT IS TOO EARLY yet to predict with any degree of certainty the future of the Deputy Directors' Conference. All indications,

however, point to a bright future. The high rate of attendance and the interest shown in the meetings is evidence of the high regard with which the conference is held by its members. Several members have said that their directors are vitally interested in the conference and in the ideas developed in its sessions. These men report that as soon as possible after each meeting they sit down and review the discussions of the meeting with their directors.

The potential influence of this conference is perhaps illustrated by the following incident. Several weeks after the discussion by the conference of the factual picture on the procedure involved in the payment of vendors, one member of the conference reported that the head of his accounting office had told him that he had noticed an appreciable improvement in the speed with which claims were being processed. He laid the improvement to the fact that even though the conference had not as yet recommended any changes in the procedure, the mere fact that top management was showing an interest in the subject and was analyzing every step of the claim procedure had stimulated everyone along the line—from the departmental accounting offices through the Controller's Office—to speedier action.

The members of the Personnel Board are convinced of the potentialities inherent in the conference. Recently the Board asked the conference to study and give it the benefit of their collective thinking on the problem of overtime worked by employees in professional, technical, and administrative classes. The conference discussed the problem under the following topic: "What guides should be followed in determining whether cash payment for overtime worked should be permitted in a specific class, especially high-level professional, technical, and administrative classes?"

At a subsequent public hearing held by the Personnel Board on this general subject, the points and suggestions developed by the conference were presented to the Board. After the hearing the staff of the

Board developed proposed rules on the subject, taking into account the ideas presented by the representative of the conference and the suggestions presented at the hearing by others. These proposed rules were, in turn, considered by the conference at a subsequent meeting.

Even if the conference should disintegrate tomorrow, in the judgment of the writer, it would already have justified the efforts that went into organizing it. For whatever happens, the conference has already accomplished several things:

1. It has provided the means whereby the deputy heads of thirty-two of the state agencies have come to know each other. Even though most of the group have long records of state service, there was a surprising lack of acquaintanceship among these officials. Now, however, the Deputy State Controller can telephone the Deputy Director of Education and, after a preliminary greeting of "Hello, George" and "How are you, Bert," can discuss on the basis of friendly candor the state problem that occasioned the call.

2. The conference group has recommended changes in the procedure for the payment of vendors that will go on yielding dividends to the state for years to come. Even if the conference were immediately disbanded, the committee of the conference that has been working on this problem for several months would undoubtedly continue its analysis of the problem and make further valuable recommendations.

3. The conference afforded an excellent

opportunity to the State Personnel Board to begin the installation of the new report of performance system by explaining the principles and procedures of the new system to the administrators in charge of agencies employing virtually all employees who will be rated under the system.

4. The conference is rapidly bringing about a realization of the "oneness" of the state service and is breaking down the artificial barriers between state agencies. The realization by the members of the mutuality of so many of their problems has been a definite factor in breaking down these barriers. Now, rather than lacking topics for meetings, the group has already agreed on so many topics that the problem now is one of determining the priority in which the topics will be scheduled.

In the judgment of the writer and of others close to the picture, the conference is steadily gaining stature and importance in the state government. It is filling the long-felt need for a means of pooling the administrative experience of those in top management positions in the state service and of obtaining greater inter-agency uniformity in administrative matters. When the state administration changes—and this always occurs, sooner or later—this conference may at that time make one of its most valuable contributions in providing a means of orientation for the new noncivil service deputy administrators and thus maintain an uninterrupted flow of the state's administrative processes.

Legal Notes Edited by H. ELIOT KAPLAN

Veterans' Preference in Layoffs

The federal Veteran Preference Act of 1944, besides granting preference to war veterans in appointments, also grants preference to them in retention where positions are abolished or there is a necessary reduction in force. Pursuant to such Act the United States Civil Service Commission adopted reduction in force regulations providing that veterans whose efficiency ratings are good or better shall be retained regardless of seniority of non-veterans in the same class of position.

This phase of the regulation and statute was attacked as an unconstitutional discrimination against non-veterans with longer seniority than a number of veterans who were retained in the Charleston Navy Yard. In *Hilton v. Sullivan*, decided June 1, 1948, the United States Supreme Court upheld the validity of the preference law in favoring of veterans in retention as provided by the Act of 1944. The court held that there was no ambiguity in the language of that Act and that the preference accorded veterans in retention was exclusive of, and in addition to, the preference in re-employment for a period of at least one year after restoration provided under the Selective Service Act. In its opinion the Court stated in part:

Thus Congress, evidently considering that there were significant differences in industrial and governmental employment practices and potentialities, imposed obligations to rehire returning veterans of a markedly different nature upon Government and private employers. It did not define the "unreasonable or impossible" circumstances that might relieve a private employer of the duty to rehire veterans, nor need we attempt to do so now. But it is plain that such circumstances might conceivably be such as seriously to affect, not only the reasonableness and possibility of rehiring, but also the reasonableness and possibility of retaining him for a full year's continuous work. For this reason, among others, interpretation of (the) prohibition against discharge of a returning veteran must be made in light of whether he returns to a government-guaranteed or to a private non-guaranteed job. Therefore (the) prohibition against discharge by a private employer cannot be accepted as determinative of the scope of the congressional prohibition against "discharge" by the Government. . . .

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Executive Order 4240 of June 4, 1925, as amended by Executive Order 5068 of March 2, 1929, provided, as does Subgroup A-1 here, an absolute retention preference for veterans over non-veterans where the veterans' efficiency ratings were "good," and a similar absolute preference over non-veterans whose ratings were less than good if the veterans' ratings were equal to the non-veterans. And at the time of the passage of the Veterans' Preference Act of 1944, there were 1943 Civil Service Regulations outstanding which granted veterans with permanent tenure and with a rating of "good" or higher, precisely the same absolute retention preference over non-veterans which is now afforded by Subgroup A-1, here attacked as invalid. Consequently, a holding that veterans with a rating of "good" no longer have a retention preference over non-veterans with longer service, would mean that passage of the Veterans' Preference Act of 1944 narrowed the long-existing scope of veterans' preferences in case of reduction in force of government personnel. The purpose of that act's sponsors and of Congress in passing it appears to have been precisely the opposite—to broaden rather than narrow the preference.

Judicial Review of Classification

What appears to be a rather extreme concept of the court's function in reviewing classification of positions as determined by a civil service commission, and having far-reaching implications in the administration of that phase of the commission's responsibility, arose in *Spurck v. The Civil Service Board of Minnesota*, decided May 19, 1948 (not yet officially reported).

The Minnesota State Civil Service Board classified the position held by the petitioner "a war veteran" as an Attorney Grade I in the state social welfare division. He brought a mandamus proceeding to compel the personnel director to allocate his position to a higher grade. Thereupon, he was reclassified by the board as Attorney Grade II; and soon thereafter he was laid off, his position having purportedly been abolished. In the meantime, the petitioner appealed to the civil service board from the classification determined by the personnel director and demanded a hearing in the nature of a trial, with the right to be represented by counsel and to examine and cross-examine witnesses. The request for such a hearing and trial was denied by the board. In lieu thereof the board permitted the petitioner to submit a written statement including that of witnesses for its consideration, but without formal hearing and argument. The

board affirmed the allocation of the petitioner to Attorney Grade II. In a second proceeding the Supreme Court upheld the contention of the petitioner that he was entitled to be reclassified as Attorney, Grade IV, inasmuch as another, a non-war veteran, had been retained in a similar position and had been performing substantially similar functions and responsibilities as had been assumed by the petitioner. The former had been reclassified by the personnel director as Attorney Grade IV without further examination.

The court held that the Minnesota statute which authorized an appeal to the board from the allocation determined by the personnel director entitled the appellant to a public trial before the board "with all the incidents of a trial in a court of law including the right of subpoena, production of witnesses and documents, the taking of testimony, examination and cross-examination of witnesses, representation by counsel, hearing, oral or written argument, decision on the merits and the like."

It is not the province of the court to reweigh the evidence and to determine which of conflicting versions of the facts presented to the board should be adopted, the Court maintained. Where the evidence as a matter of law, however, compels a certain finding and the administrative finding is to the contrary, the finding so made constitutes error of law which the court will reverse.

By analogy to appeals from both judicial decrees of lower courts and appeals to the court from quasi-judicial decisions of administrative agencies such as the workmen's compensation board, the court resorted to a strict interpretation of the term "appeal" as used in the civil service law.

The court took it upon itself to examine in detail the complete record before the board and after reviewing all of the facts and evidence presented to it, took it upon itself to determine that the petitioner's position should be reclassified as Attorney Grade IV on the ground that the petitioner should have been classified the same as another performing substantially similar services in another attorney's position. The court seems to have been somewhat piqued by the delay that apparently occurred in reinstating and reallocating the petitioner in the higher classification after its earlier mandate to do so (9 N. W. 2d 259); and by the attempt to discharge the employee shortly after his reemployment and reallocation as an Attorney Grade II.

In its opinion the court stated:

Plainly, petitioner was penalized for seeking and obtaining judicial vindication of his rights. By classifying Metcalf's position as class attorney IV and allocating him thereto the board construed its own rules in accordance with the view that petitioner's position also should be so classified. If anything, the evidence in his case was not as compelling as it was in favor of petitioner. The construction and application by the board of its own rules in Metcalf's case is persuasive that a similar construction and application should also be made in petitioner's case. Quite aside from the fact that a consistent and impartial administration of the civil service law requires that like allocation be given petitioner, the mandate of M. S. A. 43.34, that the civil service status rights of veterans blanketed into the civil service shall be "protected" by the civil service law, can be given effect only by according to petitioner the same civil service rights as are accorded to others who are not only junior in the service, but who have no veterans' rights at all.

Here, if there were a remand to the board, there would be no fact question for its determination as to whether petitioner should be allocated to class attorney IV. Petitioner's right to be so allocated appears as a matter of law from the board's records. If the board made a different allocation upon remand, it would be an error of law which would necessitate setting it aside.

Editor's Note: See also *Spurch v. Civil Service Board*, decided simultaneously with above, holding that where the court directs the reclassification of a position of an employee and after such reallocation by the board he is reemployed in a different position than the one to which he was ordered reinstated, or he is placed on a waiting list for possible state employment contingent upon the creation of the position to which he was ordered reemployed, he is entitled to bring a further proceeding for reinstatement where the petitioner can show that funds were made available for the position and that another holds a similar position to which he is entitled.

IN SAN FRANCISCO, the city charter preserves the existing employment classifications of incumbents of positions of an acquired private utility system. In the absence of a specific provision of the charter authorizing the civil service commission to curtail any of the employees' rights, the commission has no such implied authority. A rule of the commission requiring such employees to file a protest against any proposed classification of their positions within 16 days after such classification has been determined by the commission was ruled not applicable to employees of the acquired railway system. Similarly, a rule of the commission which provides that any determina-

tion of the commission of any "original case" will not be reconsidered unless the commission shall consent thereto within 30 days after such decision, did not apply to the commission's classification of the street railway company's employees.

An appeal to the court alleging that the employees had been reclassified in ranks or grades inferior to the positions they held with the private company was sustained. An allegation in the petition that the commission knowingly deprived the employees of the places to which they were entitled was held to be sufficient allegation that the civil service commission had acted arbitrarily and abused its discretion.

The court directed the commission to classify a chief engineer of the private utility system as a senior engineer rather than merely as an engineer subordinate to senior engineers. Similarly it directed the company's chief clerk, who occupied the highest clerical position in the company's transportation department, to be classified by the commission as a chief clerk rather than merely as a head clerk. The court further directed that those who were employed by the private company to receive money turned in by conductors and bus operators, though properly classified by the commission as general clerks, to be assured by the commission that they would be continued in their specialized type of work. (*Kenney v. Wolff*, 191 P. 2d 88, Dist. Ct. App., Calif.)

ANOTHER STATE COURT, however, in reviewing the classification of positions by the civil service commission, held that it will not determine the wisdom of administrative policies nor pass upon purely administrative issues with which the agency is vested with discretion. Where the record disclosed that the civil service commission has classified the petitioner's position of chief deputy circuit court clerk as Clerk IV in an honest attempt to perform its statutory duty, and where it appeared that the petitioner's reclassification as Court Executive II was given painstaking consideration, and there was an honest difference of opinion between the petitioner and the commission as to the proper classification of the position, the commission's determination as to the classification is final and conclusive. The court declined to interfere in the absence of evidence of bad faith or illegal action. An agreement by the department and its subordinate for part-time services to act as secretary of the department

was held to be merely a recommendation to the civil service commission and as such was not binding on the civil service commission. It was the latter's responsibility to determine the salary after studying the duties and functions of the position. (*Bischoff v. Wayne County*, 31 N. W. 2d 798, Mich.)

Promotion Requiring Competition

What constitutes a promotion requiring competition (in jurisdictions where a promotion from one position to another in a higher grade is required to be made on a competitive basis) has long been a moot issue. Where there is a sound classification based on duties and functions performed, where titles of positions are distinctive and sufficiently descriptive of their duties, and where lines of promotion are clearly delineated, little difficulty arises in determining whether a "detail" or "assignment" is in fact a "promotion." Similarly where positions are "graded" by salary demarcations, such as by fixing the minimum and maximum salary range of the grade, it has been held that when the salary of the position is increased beyond the maximum of the "grade" it constitutes a "promotion." In those jurisdictions which require competitive examination to be held among those serving within the lower grade in case of promotion, the increase beyond the grade may be granted only to one who has qualified by competition among them.

In the category of positions in the higher administrative and executive posts, and in the professional, scientific and technical services, however, where the lines of promotion are not clearly indicated (particularly in the absence of a comprehensive position classification), just where the line may be drawn in determining whether a substantial increase in pay constitutes a promotion has not been quite so clear.

Thanks to the New York Court of Appeals, we have at last a clear definition of what constitutes a "promotion" under the competitive examination system. In *Williams v. Morton*, (79 N. E. 2d 428) the Court had before it the following factual situation. In January, 1942, the New York City Board of Education after consultation with the Civil Service Commission and the New York Academy of Medicine established a position of chief medical examiner at a pay range of \$10,000 to \$12,000 a year. It was agreed that the position should be filled after open competitive examination. Because of a dearth of candidates for competi-

tion during the war period, the Board of Education appointed one of its examining physicians (salary \$4,000) provisionally as chief medical examiner, increasing his pay to \$7,500.

In April, 1946, the Commission directed the holding of an open competitive examination to fill the position permanently. The Board of Education, however, soon thereafter abolished the position. Concurrently, it reinstated the provisional appointee to his old position of examining physician, and then reassigned him "as in charge" of the medical staff of the Board at the same salary of \$7,500. The Board claimed this was a mere "detail" or "assignment" at the pleasure of the Board; and therefore it did not constitute a "promotion" as contemplated by the civil service law requiring competition.

In a proceeding instituted by the New York Civil Service Reform Association challenging the reassignment "as in charge" of the medical staff as an evasion of the civil service provision of the New York constitution, the Association contended that the position was in fact not abolished; that the incumbent performed the identical duties he had been performing as a provisional chief medical examiner, and this was admitted by the Board of Education. The Civil Service Commission claimed that because there was no maximum salary fixed for the position of examining physician (the minimum of the grade was \$3,000 with no maximum) no competitive promotion examination was required under the civil service law.

The lower courts sustained the Board and Commission and dismissed the petition. The Court of Appeals reversed the lower courts, stating:

There can be no question of the power of the board of education to abolish the position of chief medical examiner. Nor was the board necessarily wrong in raising Dr. Conboy's salary, for no maximum salary grade was attached to his civil service position of examining physician, Grade 4. But competitive examination for the position of chief medical examiner was practicable, as all the parties are agreed; and that being so, we are brought to the question whether the employment of Dr. Conboy as medical examiner in charge of the medical staff of the board of education was a "promotion" within the meaning of the civil service principle of the State Constitution (Art. V, § 6) which clearly requires all promotions as well as all appointments to be made for merit and fitness after determination thereof by competitive examination, unless such an examination would be futile.

The duties now being performed by Dr. Conboy are the exceptional duties that had been laid

down by the board of education for its former position of chief medical examiner, that is to say, supervision of the departmental medical staff and of all its affairs and employees. Moreover, the salary paid to Dr. Conboy for this service is nearly twice as much as that which he had previously received in his civil service position of examining physician, Grade 4. Such an advance in income and in professional responsibility and prestige is certainly a "promotion" in every fair sense of that word. The board of education should, therefore, be directed to stop its employment of Dr. Conboy as medical examiner in charge of its medical staff and should be enjoined from assigning the duties of that position to any one except a person appointed thereto from an eligible list established through a competitive examination conducted pursuant to the civil service law.

CASE NOTES

Power of State Civil Service Commission.

Under the New York civil service law, the state civil service commission may rescind a civil service examination held by a municipal civil service commission or an eligible list established by the latter even after an appointment has been made from such list, where it is found by the state commission that the examination was fraudulently or improperly held in violation of the civil service rules. The state commission may not be enjoined from investigating the nature and character of the examination with possible result in its cancellation because of alleged bias or prejudice on the part of the state commission inferred from a preliminary investigation of the acts of the municipal commission in holding the examination, since the statute vests in the state commission the sole power of making such investigation. The maintenance and protection of the merit system in the civil service are matters of state concern, and appropriate power may be vested in the state civil service commission by general law without violating the home-rule provisions of the state constitution. Appointments made from an eligible list rescinded by the state commission nullify all appointments made therefrom whether the incumbents appointed therefrom are veterans or not. Tenure laws do not apply to appointments made from such rescinded list. (*Kaney v. New York State Civil Service Commission*, 77 N. Y. S. 2d 8.)

Scope of State Powers.—The state has comprehensive power over the method of selection or removal of employees of political subdivisions; and such state laws affecting the relations between a local government and its subordinate employees relating to appointment,

suspension, removal or demotion supersede all local laws relating thereto. (*Burgess v. Willey*, 58 A. 2d 454, Pa.)

Covering-In of Incumbents.—Adoption by a New Jersey municipality of the state civil service act (to be applied to the city) does not serve to cover in without examination the position of legal assistant in the law department of the city, where such an office was never created by local ordinance. After the city created the position of assistant city counsel, the incumbent of a position of legal assistant did not thereby attain civil service status so as to require his appointment to the newly created office. It was held that a local office in New Jersey may not be created except by express ordinance. (*City of Orange v. Goldberg*, 58 A. 2d 211, N. J.)

Term of Office.—A constitutional provision limiting terms of office for a specified period, and providing that incumbents thereof shall continue to hold office until their successors shall have been elected or appointed and qualified, does not serve to grant a new term for a further fixed period, but is a contingent extension of the term defeasible by election or appointment of another for a new term. (*Swank v. Tyndall*, 78 N. E. 2d 535, Ind.)

Definition of "Public Officer."—A deputy sheriff, even though substituting for the sheriff, and who may only act in the name of the sheriff, and who performs no independent action in that he is only the agent of the sheriff who deputized him to act in the latter's name and by his authority, and who holds no fixed term of office but serves at the pleasure of the sheriff, is not a "public officer" within its usual meaning under constitutional provisions prohibiting extension of the term of any officer or increasing or diminishing his salary during his term of office. (*Rusch v. Board of County Commissioners*, 191 P. 2d 870, Montana.)

Prevailing Rate of Pay.—The San Francisco charter provides that employees in skilled crafts must be paid by the board of supervisors at the same "rate of pay" as is established for such crafts by collective bargaining with private employers of industry in San Francisco. The provision was attacked as invalid on the ground that it enabled private individuals to determine the rate of pay to be fixed by the city, and was therefore an unlawful delegation of legislative power; it was also

attacked on the further ground that it delegated to private citizens control over city money or to perform any city function. The court upheld the validity of the charter provision, holding that the charter merely set up a standard for determining rates of pay for city employees and was not an attempt to give public employees the right to bargain collectively in violation of the labor code. (*Adams v. Wolff*, 190 P. 2d 665, Dist. C. App., Calif.)

Discretion in Assignment of Subordinates.—The police chief of Atlanta, pursuant to a resolution of the city council, appointed a number of negro policemen and restricted their assignment to areas of the city populated almost exclusively by negroes. The city charter authorizes the chief of police to assign members of the police force to such duty or detail as he may deem in his discretion advisable in maintaining the public peace. In a proceeding to enjoin the police chief from assigning negro policemen to such exclusive areas of the city and restricting them to arrests only of negroes, the court denied the petitioner's plea of relief, holding that such assignments were vested exclusively in the police chief, with which discretion the court would not interfere. (*Yarn v. City of Atlanta*, 47 S. E. 2d 556, Ga.)

Liability for Negligence.—A public employee who performs a purely ministerial act not requiring exercise of any judgment or discretion is liable for ordinary negligence or willful or wanton misconduct, it was ruled in *Mower v. Williams*, 78 N. E. 2d 529 (App. Ct. Ill.). It was held to be against the public interest and against public policy to shield such an employee from liability when a driver of a snow plow was found negligent in colliding with a citizen's automobile on the public highway.

Liability of Police Officer.—A municipality is not liable for acts of a policeman which injure a person sought to be arrested, where such injury occurs in the course of the policeman performing his necessary duty, even if the arrest is found later to have been unlawful. While so acting, and within the sphere of his authority, he is acting for the municipality in enforcing the peace, and reasonable and prudent conduct on his part in making an arrest is all that is required. However, where a police officer uses greater force than necessary in making an arrest or in maintaining the public peace, he is personally liable, not the

municipality, for injury to others due to his acts which go beyond the authority vested in him as a policeman. (*Archer v. City of Cisco*, 211 S. W. 2d 955, Texas.)

Length of Suspension.—A statute which authorizes the suspension of a policeman for disciplinary reasons and limiting such suspension to a period "not to exceed 30 days in any year," was construed to apply to the calendar year in which the suspension was made. A policeman was suspended on December 1 for 45 days. The petitioner claimed he could not be suspended for more than 30 days. The suspension for 45 days was sought to be defended by the city on the ground that the 45 day suspension covered 30 days in one year and 15 days of the following year; in other words, on the theory that the suspension was, in effect, one of 30 days in one year and one of 15 days in one following year. The court, however, ruled that the suspension under the statute was limited to 30 days in any one year, starting from the date of suspension. (*City of Anniston v. Douglas*, 34 So. 2d 467, Ala.)

Veterans' Preference

Preference in Layoff.—A decision of far-reaching implications and of grave concern to non-veterans in the federal civil service was handed down by the United States Circuit Court of Appeals (Boston) on June 28, affecting the rights of veterans under reduction in force regulations. The court held that the Veteran Preference Act of 1912 is still in full force and effect notwithstanding the enactment of the Veteran Preference Act of 1944. The 1912 Act provides that all non-veterans in the service must be laid off before any veteran may be discharged for lack of work or lack of appropriation. Basing its determination on the recent decision of the Supreme Court in *Hilton v. Sullivan* (decided June 1, 1948, and reviewed in this issue), the court held that the Congress in the Veteran Preference Act of 1944, as maintained by the Supreme Court,

... did not intend to restrict, limit or narrow the scope of the benefits conferred upon veterans by earlier legislation, but instead, intended to enlarge the preference in government employment they already enjoy. . . . The language of the 1912 provision . . . was an absolute command that no governmental department should discharge, drop or reduce in rank any honorably discharged veteran federal employee with a rating of "good."

It is feared that this decision, if sustained

by the highest court, will gravely affect the retention possibilities of non-veteran employees regardless of seniority—even more so than heretofore applied in practice under the earlier interpretation of the civil service commission. (*Wettre v. Hague*, C. C. A. First District.)

Service with Merchant Marine.—The United States Supreme Court (May 24, 1948) declined to review the case of *Redding v. City of Los Angeles*, 185 P. 2d. 430, Calif., reviewed in *Public Personnel Review*, April, 1948, which held that service with the Merchant Marine did not entitle one serving therein to preference in civil service appointments as a war veteran in the "armed forces." The Supreme Court dismissed the appeal "for want of a substantial federal question."

Promotional Preference Unconstitutional.—The Circuit Court of Cook County, Illinois, recently held unconstitutional the provision of the Illinois Civil Service Code (Section 10½) which granted war veterans a preference in promotion examinations over non-veterans by giving veterans extra point credits in addition to their earned examination ratings. An appeal is now pending in the Illinois Supreme Court.

Discharge

Appeal and Hearing.—A member of the city police force was discharged for conduct unbecoming an officer. It was based on his arrest while off duty on suspicion of robbery, and his conduct at time of his arrest. Affirmance of his discharge by the civil service commission after proper hearing was upheld where such affirmance by the commission was found to be reasonably justified by the facts. Under the Massachusetts statute an employee is entitled to a hearing *de novo* on all material evidence and a final decision by the civil service commission upon that evidence, and not merely to a review of a previous hearing held before the appointing officer. (*Sullivan v. Municipal Court of Roxbury*, 78 N. E. 2d 618, Mass.)

Time Limits for Hearing.—The Los Angeles charter provides that the civil service commissioners shall, within 15 days after discharge of an employee or within 5 days after notice of appeal by the employee, proceed to investigate the grounds for dismissal. It was held that this does not limit the time in which the commission may hold a hearing. It is necessary

only that the hearing be held within a reasonable time. The court will not order reinstatement on the ground of undue delay in hearing the charges unless it clearly appears that the delay is unreasonable and wilful. (*Steen v. City of Los Angeles*, 190 P. 2d 937, Calif.)

Removal After Fraudulent Examination.—

A number of firemen appointed after an alleged fraudulent examination held by the Lackawanna, N. Y. civil service commission were ordered dropped from their positions by the state civil service commission which, under the New York law, has authority to nullify an examination held by a local commission where there is fraud or illegality. Petitioners contended that inasmuch as their appointments were completed and they had fulfilled the probationary term, their appointments could not be rescinded; nor could they be removed from their positions except upon charges after a hearing, as provided for permanent employees. They claimed further that any alleged misconduct or illegality of the city commission could not be imputed to them as affecting their vested rights. It was held that the appointments were tainted with fraud and could therefore be rescinded. It was not deemed to be a "removal" within the terms of the protective provisions of the civil service law. (*Sippell v. Dowd*, 76 N. Y. S. 2d 440; Sp. Ct. Erie Ct., aff'd, App. Div. 4th Dept.)

Retirement

Proof of Age.—Under the civil service act affecting cities in Illinois, it is specifically provided that the date of birth given on the application of a candidate for examination by the civil service commission shall be conclusive proof of the age of the employee for purposes of the retirement system. The petitioner, a police captain, was able to prove from official records that he was actually 4 years older than the date specified on his original application for policeman. It was maintained that the date in the application for the examination estopped the petitioner from claiming any other age under the retirement system. It was ruled that a statute is not invalid solely because it

declares certain evidence as conclusive of a fact, even if it can be disproved by documentary or official records. (*Goudie v. Allman*, 78 N. E. 2d 522, App. Ct. of Ill.)

Changes in Retirement Plan.—Where a charter provision affecting pensions of city policemen may be amended from time to time, there is no contractual obligation to maintain the pension as of the time of entering employment of the city. The pension does not become vested until the person has been retired. Changes in the pension provision may lawfully be made applicable to those still serving and not yet retired. (*Brown v. City of Highland Park*, 30 N. W. 2d 798, Mich.)

Authority to Levy Tax.—Legislative authority to a municipality to levy a tax to provide for municipal firemen's pensions does not violate the state constitutional provision prohibiting the legislature from imposing taxes on a municipality for local or corporate purposes without the city's consent. While the legislature may not directly levy such taxes, it may grant to municipalities authority to do so. Refund of the total amount of contribution to a city pension fund by any fireman who resigned or was discharged after 10 years of service was held not to be "extra compensation for past services" or a gratuity, and such refund was deemed to be a final release for prior wage deductions and did not become city's property but were merely held in trust for purposes of the pension fund. (*Sommers v. Patton*, 78 N. E. 2d 313.)

Discretion in Determining Contribution.—

A city ordinance which authorized a board of trustees of the city retirement system to determine the city's amount of contribution to the annuity reserve fund without the city fixing any standards to guide the board other than a general provision that it adopt mortality and other tables deemed necessary to compute such amount on the basis of an actuarial valuation was held invalid as delegating to an administrative board power to make appropriations, and indirectly power to impose taxes, contrary to the home-rule act. (*Thiesen v. Parker*, 31 N. W. 2d 806, Mich.)



THE BOOKSHELF



A Human Relations Case Book for Executives and Supervisors. Frances S. Drake and Charles A. Drake. McGraw-Hill Book Co., Inc., New York, 1948. 187 p., \$2.50.

There are a good many books on management and supervision, most of them published since the war, which are better texts than the pre-war books because of their emphasis on the scientific findings of industrial psychologists. These have grown out of a new kind of industrial research during the past ten years or so. The contributions of top-rank psychologists like Carl Rogers (interviewing), Walter Bingham (testing), Norman Maier (motivation), Robert McMurray (personality adjustments), Roethlisberger and Dickson (worker morale), Ordway Tead (leadership), and other psychologists have given management experts like the Drakes new tools for appraising management efficiency.

A Human Relations Casebook is just that—a collection of 75 cases of good and bad human relationships for executives and supervisors to ponder. It is hoped they will read it; for many, the shoe will pinch. This little book draws heavily on the type of psychological research mentioned, such as that carried out by the Western Electric Hawthorne Works, Chicago. The book highlights the whole new emphasis in industry on the man rather than the machine. While public administration is not mentioned, the book is as useful on the shelf of a civil service director as on that of any captain of industry. Human relations are human relations, wherever you find them.

Perhaps the chief value of this latest text of McGraw-Hill's Industrial Organization and Management series is its form. It is written as simply as a primer, a text of elementary employment practice, admirably suited for the classroom, whether on a university campus or in a supervisory training course in a modern factory.

Its six highly readable chapters are titled "Adjusting the Human Resources," "Developing Attitudes and Sentiments," "Using and Abusing Incentives," "Bargaining with Individuals and Groups," "Mobilizing the Brainpower of an Organization," and "The Ways of Executives and Supervisors." There are about a dozen case histories under each chap-

ter, and each begins with a brief paragraph or two of generalization, followed by a specific case in point, usually not more than a page in length. This, in turn, is followed by a page or less of comment, as in the chapter on incentives, on why the particular incentive plan failed. At the end of each of the 75 cases presented are two or three topics for discussion.

The case histories are well selected, and provide a rich mine of illustration and example which are obviously drawn from management experience rather than opinion or prejudice. They are cases of true failures and successes in supervisory relationships and the moral to each is well drawn. If a few hallowed idols are knocked down in the process by the newer psychology, such as may be found in the "Bargaining with Individuals and Groups" chapter, it merely earmarks the book as belonging to a modern era.

It occurred to this reviewer that the text would make an excellent one for the psychology classroom, because some mental mechanisms and personality types illustrated are those the professor in a class of abnormal psychology might describe. There are numerous examples, such as the demon executive, who drove himself until late at night, and often on Saturdays and Sundays; the paranoid employee, who got in trouble with workers and bosses in whatever department he was placed; the fussy executive who quibbled over minute details while ignoring the more important details of his job; the frustration in employees under certain management conditions, which always seems to lead to aggression of some sort; the stuffed shirt who wastes his time in busy idleness. Other types of supervisors, like the "Comma Chaser" and the "All Seeing Eye," are pointed out, not in a spirit of ridicule, but to show the devastating effect of such personality quirks on staffs and employees.

The book stresses what needs to be stressed over and over again: that management deals not with buildings, or machines, or finances, but with people. That its success must be measured largely in terms of two factors: first, its insight in interpreting and satisfying human wants; and second, its skill in evaluating human aptitudes and abilities and then applying these in production. As the book states

in its introduction: "Every manager . . . makes mistakes in certain of his judgments and actions. He thereby stirs up resentment, produces maladjustments, and impedes progress. Other of his judgments and actions are entirely sound, fostering good will and harmonious relationships. Good and poor managers alike have at one time or another exhibited both modes of performance. There, however, the similarity ends. *The discerning manager looks back appraisingly on the nature and consequences of what he has done in the past.* As a result, his "misses" are seldom repeated, while the "hits" are allowed to condition his personality and his methods. The poor manager, on the other hand, pursues an indiscriminate course of trial and error. His ways are largely unmodified by the lessons of past experience, either his own or that of others."

The well-chosen case histories of actual situations describing how they were mishandled or successfully met, together with the book's excellent organization for teaching purposes, and the selected bibliographies at the end of each chapter, should help to shorten this period of trial and error for any manager or supervisor with an open mind.—LYNDON BABCOCK, *Wayne County Civil Service Commission*.

Job Evaluation. Jay L. Otis and Richard H. Leukart. Prentice-Hall, Inc., New York. 1948. 473 p. \$6.65.

The authors have attempted to delineate the principles of sound wage and salary administration based on job analysis and to present them, together with illustrations of techniques, in a single volume. Such an effort has been overdue. Those who have attempted to keep up with the prolific literature of job evaluation will agree with the authors that a compelling need has developed for an organized presentation of this subject matter.

Mr. Otis is Professor of Psychology, and Director of the Personnel Research Institute, Western Reserve University; Mr. Leukart is Director of Industrial Relations for the National Screw and Manufacturing Company. Together they have brought to this work a wealth of scholarship, research, and experience in wage administration. They are especially thorough and surefooted when dealing with job evaluation as applied to blue-collar work in private industry.

The first chapter contains a helpful discus-

sion of the basic problems in wage and salary administration. A brief history is given of developments in our industrial system, development of crafts, growth of unions, legislation affecting wages, and recent developments in management-employee relationships. A good case is made that systematic wage administration can become the basis for employer-employee understanding. Job evaluation of itself does not favor management over labor; if objectively applied, it operates to the interests of both. The authors realize, however, that job analysis can be manipulated and all too often has been used in industry to substantiate a point of view rather than to secure facts upon which a point of view can be established.

Increasing numbers of companies are turning to systematic and orderly methods of classifying jobs and determining wage rates. This is true in the face of many failures. Many plans die at birth; many more fail after a period of initial success. Even now the majority of companies in the United States have no definite program for administering wages and salaries paid to their workers. The authors regard it as surprising that so many companies that pride themselves on precision workmanship have no logical reasons for the existing relationships among the rates for different occupations, and frequently pay widely differing wage rates to workers performing the same tasks. This incongruity also surprises many engaged in public personnel administration, particularly when critics of government pay plans so frequently point to industry as a model in these matters.

The limited success of job evaluation in industry, after several decades of experimentation, should provide the tip-off that the requirements for success lie deeper and are more difficult to attain than mere technical expertness in job factfinding and evaluation. The big requirement is a genuine decision by management, concurred in by employees, to administer a wage program on the basis of observed facts. This decision, as the authors say, "commits the company to self-discipline with respect to pricing jobs and paying men. This means abandoning the practice of making rate adjustments based on expediency, pressure, favoritism, caprice, incomplete information, or indeed on any basis other than agreed-upon observations and facts interpreted in terms of established standards." Such a decision is difficult to make and cleave to—difficult for both management and labor.

Although the authors know that basic management philosophy may be more critical than the particular technique used for job evaluation, this book is mostly about techniques. Three chapters describe both the non-quantitative and quantitative evaluation systems, explain in detail how to apply them, reproduce examples of rating scales and other forms, and discuss the advantages and disadvantages of various systems in different situations. The War Manpower classification of systems is followed. The ranking system, the point system, the factor comparison system—these are all covered thoroughly. Weakest is the treatment of the job classification system, the one used in almost all governmental organizations. No reference is made to the pioneering work of Griffenhagen, Jacobs, and Telford. The federal classification system is given only token and somewhat confused treatment. In fact, the authors complain that "the United States Civil Service Commission makes little definite information available regarding specific criteria for classification." No mention is made of the grade definitions in the Classification Act of 1923, as amended, or of the United States Civil Service Commissions' numerous class specifications recently issued.

There is limited discussion of uses other than job evaluation which class specification can serve. Perhaps the most extensive "other use" has been in connection with civil service examination in states, cities, and counties. Yet the authors have nothing whatever to say about this widespread experience which has been building up in this country for more than 40 years.

The selection and definition of allocation factors and factor degrees is given considerable attention. Numerous examples of factors are given. The reader may be disappointed, however, that there is not more theoretical discussion of the factor concept, or more about the rationale of selecting optimum factors for a given occupational situation. The opinion is expressed that factors should be assigned different weights, but no experimental findings or summary of experience is presented in support. The work of C. H. Lawshe, Jr., and his collaborators is discussed briefly, and some very good practical questions raised about his conclusion that the number of factors can feasibly be reduced to two or three. Otis and Leukart refrain, however, just as Lawshe himself does, from theorizing about the meaning of Lawshe's statistical results.

More than 70 pages are given to job fact-finding and writing job descriptions. Instructions are given in detail, and many illustrative forms are reproduced. Some may regard this section as unnecessarily long and involved. It compares poorly, for example, with the treatment of the same subject in the recent Life Office Management Association report "Clerical Salary Administration." Although long, this section does not completely cover its subject. Treating job descriptions and job specifications (for job rating purposes) as separate items, the authors take no cognizance of the recent trend both in industry and government to combine the general description and factor breakdown into one position description.

Finding job facts by the questionnaire method is disposed of summarily. Otis and Leukart simply say the questionnaire method does not work, and should be passed over in favor of the interview and observation. In taking this position, they ignore the 10 years of L.O.M.A. research summarized in the report mentioned above; they ignore the fact that a considerable number of the "best managed companies" (according to American Management Association ratings) use the questionnaire method for executive, supervisory, and clerical positions; they ignore the at least partially successful use of the questionnaire method by hundreds of public agencies at all levels of government. It may have been the authors' intent to condemn this method only in its application to manual occupations, but they did not qualify their criticism in this way.

One of the most interesting chapters is about verification of job evaluation ratings. A procedure is explained whereby evaluations made by one system are tested by evaluating the same jobs by means of one of the other systems. Where the results differ, the individual jobs can be scrutinized closely to run down the reason for the discrepancy. This procedure suggests many possibilities for use in research, but it is questionable whether many operating situations would allow time for such painstaking verification. At this point, it should be mentioned that the authors do not concern themselves with the problem of reducing the time and cost of job evaluation, although this is frequently the critical problem for those engaged in this work.

What is said about "classification of employees on the job" will shock many readers in the federal service because it casually gives the supervisor the major responsibility for allocating individual positions, after such elabo-

rate care has been given to pegging jobs, or classes, at their correct relative levels.

Useful information is given on conducting wage surveys, setting wage rates, methods of granting wage increases, merit ratings, and other aspects of wage administration. One chapter deals with the relationship between job evaluation and collective bargaining.

It is easy to think of *Job Evaluation* as a college textbook. In the preface the authors say that "with a book of this type it is possible to conduct a college course on the subject without depending on reading material of limited scope and point of view." It may be used widely for this purpose, although its scope largely excludes job evaluation in the public service and as applied anywhere to professional, administrative, and clerical work. Whether it will be read widely away from the campus is questionable. The binding is attractive, the paper good quality, the typography very satisfactory. But the book is not easy reading. It is long and sometimes repetitious. It is likely to be read completely only by the most determined and by those required to do so. *Job Evaluation*, however, will be quite a valuable reference use because it is carefully indexed and is rich in illustrative material.—WILLIAM T. McDONALD, *Departmental Civilian Personnel Branch, Navy Department*.

Counseling Employees. Earl M. Bowler and Frances Triggs Dawson. Prentice-Hall, Inc., New York. 1948. 236 p. \$4.00.

Earl M. Bowler, Coordinator, Public Service Occupations, Bureau of Industrial and Business Training Extension Division, University of Texas, and Frances T. Dawson, Personnel Consultant and Director of Vocational Education, Elon College, N. C., effectively cover the scope, purpose and values of employee counseling and present a summary of the experience of private industry in this field. Although reference is made to counseling in federal service, the discussion has been directed toward industry, rather than public administration. Through its description of established programs, the book offers to an industrial concern contemplating the installation of a counseling program a picture of the gains that may be expected by way of improved employee morale, more effective management and supervision, and hence increased production. The language is non-technical and will be found equally readable by the layman, technician, and student.

The authors state in the preface that the book has been prepared to help all counselors do a better job. Much has been accomplished in this direction through the statement of the objectives of a counseling program and recommendations as to methods of carrying out these objectives. Of particular merit is the inclusion of an outline for evaluating the effectiveness of the counselor's assistance to management, supervisors, and employees. The counselor is also advised in regard to record keeping and the importance of reports to management.

In outlining the various types of counseling the authors digress to describe in considerable detail the programs for veterans and the physically handicapped, including the activities of state and federal agencies in this field. In this connection there are frequent references to the facilities of the public employment service. Of course no discussion of these programs would be complete without recognition of the role of the United States Employment Service and the Veterans Employment Service, but it is unfortunate that some of the references are not accurate in regard to organization and federal-state aspects of these programs. In view of the confused legislative history of the Employment Service, however, the errors are certainly understandable.

On the basis of an analysis of a number of industrial programs, the authors suggest that a counselor's duties might be described as "coordination, consultation and confabulation." Under coordination are grouped those duties relating to gathering the opinions, sentiments and reactions of employees and making this information available to management for consideration in the establishment of policies and practices designed to improve morale of the work force. Consultation includes interviews with employees in which the counselor serves both as a listening-post and as an aid to the employee to help himself. Confabulation is the informal conversation with the worker as the counselor visits throughout the plant—the goodwill-building necessary to a successful counseling program. The activities in which the three C's may be practiced include, among others, service in respect to social, economic and health problems, work adjustment, induction, recreation, etc. In carrying out these activities the authors stress the desirability of performing some of them on the shop floor instead of handling them in a central office. The point is effectively made that if the coun-

selor visits the production floor frequently and is at home there with both workers and foremen, many minor problems can be settled on the spot and the development of major issues avoided.

The authors emphasize that the counselor must operate in a staff capacity and not in any way overlap with or conflict with the supervisory line. The book is not equally clear, however, in respect to the place of the counseling function in relation to the total problem of personnel management. At one point the reader is told in a footnote that the authors "recognizing the feeling of union leaders towards personnel department workers believe that counseling and trained services can function most effectively when attached to the production division . . . because personnel workers do not universally accept this point of view, it has not been emphasized throughout our book." In the opinion of the reviewer, however, the counselor's role, whether in or apart from the personnel department, has not been adequately delimited. The reader is particularly confused by the apparent overlap between counseling and such other personnel functions as placement, follow-up after job assignment, performance evaluation, and certain aspects of research. On the other hand, in the discussion of related counseling activities, the counselor's functions in respect to cooperation and coordination with the safety and training program is clearly presented.

It is realistically pointed out that the supply of trained and experienced employee counselors is limited. Although the number has grown with the rapid development of the program during the war in industry as well as in public and military service, recruiting the qualified counselor is still a difficult undertaking. The authors recommend that the three basic qualifications of applicants to be carefully investigated by employers are (1) objectivity, (2) respect for the individual, and (3) self-understanding. It is urged that these qualifications be given greater weight in the selection process than the candidate's educational background. Additional resources needed by good counselors include mature judgment, ability to listen, resourcefulness and reliability, a sense of humor, personal integrity, ability to make constructive criticism, and skill in interviewing. Wisely the authors have not suggested any standard requirements as to experience and training. A college background is considered desirable, but not es-

sential. Previous employment should have included experience in interviewing and should provide a knowledge of occupations and an understanding of people and the workers relationship to his job. Breadth of experience is desirable. The reader is reminded that specific requirements must be determined in relation to the particular duties to be assigned. If, for example, the counselor is to represent management in a public relations capacity in informing the community of the plant's employee relations program, another prerequisite is added to the requirement for his position. On-the-job experience at various spots throughout the plant is recommended as part of the counselor's in-service training.

The bibliography included at the end of each chapter is a definite contribution. This is supplemented by references to additional source material through a rather profuse use of footnotes which, while somewhat distracting to the reader, adds to the usefulness of the book as a handbook or text.—HELEN F. HARRINGTON, *Directorate of Civilian Personnel, Department of the Air Force.*

Personnel Management. Michael J. Jucius. Richard Irwin Co., Chicago. 1947. 696 p. \$6.00.

The author has contributed a valuable book on personnel management which should serve to give anyone unfamiliar with the field a clear interpretation of its scope without having to wade through confusing personnel jargon.

Written as a basic college text, it admirably carries out the author's intention of providing the college student who has limited business experience with the material that will give him a real and down-to-earth picture of the field of personnel management in its broadest sense. To the seasoned practitioner in the field, very little material is included which he will not already have seen, reviewed, and considered. Despite the 700 pages, the book can be read in a relatively short time. It is logically presented and written in a clear and interesting style. The personnel administrator should find it worthy of review as a check on the status and development of his own personnel program and for reassurance as to the approach he may be taking in meeting his organization's personnel requirements.

The principles, practices, problems and organization of personnel work are all included, but, keeping his purpose in mind, the author

has not become involved in the details, controversial refinements and mechanical processes of selection, testing, job evaluation, training and labor relations. Each principle and practice is carefully illustrated with actual examples, including forms, and check lists, where applicable. In his own words, "Emphasis is upon principles of personnel management, good practices, and selected examples of generally accepted solutions to common problems."

The text is written from the point of view of the employer's part in the personnel program and thus, unlike many writings in the field, does not leave the novice in a state of confusion as to whether a particular personnel practice should derive its greatest emphasis and importance from the employee, the union, or the employer. Personnel management in this presentation is definitely confined to the employer of labor and considered a responsibility of management.

An industrial, commercial, or governmental organization engaged in training new technicians in personnel work should find the text valuable as a starting point for the training program. Together with group-conference instruction and on-the-job training, it should hasten the thinking and development of newcomers to the field. Each chapter is followed by thought-provoking questions and problems on the material covered, which are of assist-

ance in the instructional process.

Starting with the practical, social and economic background of personnel development, the author carefully and quickly discusses the importance of specific objectives and policies of a personnel program. As he puts it, "There are no simple or quick answers to the complex problems of human relations; there is no 'get-rich-quick' road in this field. The best path—albeit slow and one calling for patience and painstaking—is that of due consideration to fundamental questions and principles which when applied to specific problems will serve to yield satisfactory answers." In writing the book, the entire personnel field is surveyed from this approach.

After covering the fundamentals of organizational structure, the author goes on to treat, in a comprehensive manner, the basic subjects of recruitment, labor supply, selection procedure, interviewing, testing, training, health and safety, employee services, job evaluation, and wage policies and plans. These are supplemented by chapters on the handling of grievances, disciplinary action, employee motivation factors, hours of work, union relationships, personnel research and control, and special personnel problems on such subjects as absenteeism, older employees, male and female differences, handicapped workers, and veterans.—GEORGE WILGUS, *Mutual Life Insurance Company*.

Personnel Administration—General Aspects

CLAPP, GORDON R. "What Price Ability in the Public Service." *Personnel Administration* 10 (5) May, 1948: 1-4.—When the prestige of public service is high, we hold up membership in an "administrative elite" to promising recruits as a route to quick and high personal prestige, which can later be converted to cash. When the service's magnetic pull is weak, we tend to pronounce the doom of a career service or to assert that higher salaries alone will save the day. Our thesis should be that a government career service will survive and thrive if and as we emphasize opportunity for service and avoid stressing personal prestige and financial reward. The result will not be perfect, just better, if we offer opportunity to perform a service which is interesting, at times exciting, and responsive to an individual's desire to do good work, rather than emphasizing good pay and "your name in lights." Administrators must be prepared to make good on promises of opportunity to serve. For one thing, we can increase the quantity and enliven the substance of matters delegated within our organization. We can create conditions and systems in our agencies which increase freedom of action farther and farther down the line. Applications of current research findings in human relations to industrial experience show that the good old American theory of democracy can be applied to advantage in shops and offices—in the sense of maximum freedom of action, and maximum worker participation. We should establish clearly the relationship between the job and the end product and put as much independence and decision-making in the job as possible. TVA experience shows that this does count in helping to make public service more attractive. To enlist maximum employee participation, TVA set up cooperative committees to suggest improvements. Of 1550 suggestions presented in four years, the largest group concerned proposed ways of doing the job and the next largest, conditions of work. A significant sidelight on motivation is the employee rejection of management's offer to provide a cash award system, because it would operate at cross purposes with the objective of employee teamwork. Instead of discouraging people from entering public service because of abuse and badgering from Congress

and the public, perhaps we can define more carefully the kind of people the service needs, intelligent people, courageous, able to take criticism, and most of all, people who are at peace within themselves. The price of ability in the public service is assurance of opportunity to do a few of the things we like to do and do them well. We must avoid the temptation to oversell it when recruitment is easy and to sell it short when recruitment is tough. The service exists not to provide jobs but to serve, and we should continue to sell the needs of the service on that basis.—*Miriam A. Margolies*.

CROWLEY, JOHN C. "Economy Through Effective Personnel Management." *Municipal Finance* XX (4) May, 1948: 19-24. From 60 to 80 per cent of the budget for any public service function goes into salaries for employees. Probably no other element of public expenditure is more important to economy in government. "Before and after" examples, while not always precisely measurable, can be cited to show economies achieved through the introduction of modern public personnel methods. Proper classification of jobs points up organizational weaknesses and facilitates budget control, in addition to allowing lower unit costs for personnel action by grouping jobs that may be treated alike. Good recruiting assures that capable employees, suited to their jobs, will perform efficiently the work that must be done. An actuarially sound retirement system and adequate separation and transfer processes help to provide opportunities for maximally effective placement. Morale and productivity are affected by personnel policies having to do with sick and annual leave, hours and conditions of work, grievance and suggestion procedures, and pay. In some jurisdictions incentive pay plans and suggestion systems have achieved spectacular savings. Merit rating systems, training programs and effective supervision also influence efficiency and economical operation. Appropriations to the personnel agency sufficient to support a vigorous and fully rounded personnel program are a good investment. At the same time, continuing self-evaluation by the agency itself is necessary to the most effective use of the agency's service potential.—*Roberta Scott*.

Personnel Records

CABIOT, P. S. DE Q. "Personnel Records—A New Slant." *Personnel Journal* 26 (10) April, 1948: 362-68.—The value of personnel records to management exceeds even that of records of production or sales for the major reasons: (1) As the direct responsibility for production and sales lies with individuals, the well-being of these individuals who make up the team of management is of primary importance; (2) Records give management information needed to formulate and revise policies which directly affect the employee; (3) Records provide management with statistical controls for evaluating efficiency of supervisory staff; and (4) Records supply management information needed to comply with federal and state legislation, for surveys in local areas, for union negotiations, and for an efficient exchange of employee references and information with other organizations. While the final responsibility for the success of the personnel records system must be assumed by management, it delegates to the personnel department the job of developing, maintaining, and interpreting the system. Personnel records, maintained to improve production and increase profits, must be so designed as to be useful to all departments, not to the personnel department alone. In setting up a records system, the following points should be assured: (1) Enlist the participation of all management executives from the start; (2) Make a survey to find the needs of all departments that can be satisfied by an efficient system of records. (By recording in simple fashion only those facts which are necessary or helpful to the company's operation, both the number of forms and number of steps necessary to process them will be minimized); (3) Plan the design, number and processing of forms carefully. Be sure that all forms, when put together, create a logical whole. A company's personnel forms should show the company's total employment procedure, and should form a history of each employee; (4) Set up definite objectives to guarantee efficient operation and safeguard the confidential nature of the records; and (5) Make a periodic audit of the records system. —Ruth C. Hanson.

Classification; Pay

MITCHELL, JAMES M. "Paying State Employees." *State Government* XXI (5) May, 1948: 105-106, 110.—Although the cost of living has risen more than 60 per cent since 1940, in-

creases in pay during that period of many of the nearly 600,000 people employed by state governments have been less than 20 per cent. This has resulted in a high turnover rate, and created difficulties in recruiting able personnel. Only Minnesota has provision for variations in pay scales in relation to changes in the BLS cost of living index. However, another state which permits needed pay adjustments between legislative sessions is California, which has established a special fund for that purpose. This is consistent with the general principles contained in the *Model State Civil Service Law*, which urges gubernatorial discretion in adjustments in a state pay plan, which should in turn be based on a carefully devised position-classification plan, an essential foundation for a workable pay plan. A state pay plan should reflect wage scales in other public agencies and in industrial organizations in the state; this can be achieved by collecting pay data on key classes of positions, as set forth in the classification plan, that can be found both in the state service and in the service of other employers. Comparability of data is assured by careful analysis of overtime pay, work week, maintenance provided, and other pertinent factors. From tentative pay rates for key classes, resulting from analysis of prevailing scales, the rates of the other classes in the state service are then developed. The resulting pay plan will consist of minimum and maximum rates for each position and rules for administration. When the plan is kept up to date by pay surveys made as often as changes elsewhere require, employees in the lower and intermediate brackets will be remunerated approximately as are their counterparts in private and other public employment. Salaries of administrative officials should be established at levels which do not require them to make personal financial sacrifice. It has been suggested that leaders in private business recommend administrative salaries in the federal service, and this would be an equally valid approach in the states. (Article contains descriptive statements of procedural steps in conducting position classification and pay surveys.)—John C. Crowley.

TURNER, WILLIAM D. "The Per Cent Method of Job Evaluation." *Personnel* 24 (6) May, 1948: 476-492.—The per cent method of job evaluation enables a company's committee of job raters to establish its own factor comparison job rating scales without referring at any time to the rates of pay for key jobs or

others. This feature of the method protects it from the disturbances in rating and from the controversies which frequently arise when rates of pay are used to establish a job evaluation system. The per cent method displays two novel methodological features, one of which is its use of "per cent judgments." In making such judgments the job raters simply decide what percentage of one job factor another job factor is worth. This type of judgment has been found to be as easy as any other factor comparison judgment and to rest on the same basic thinking processes. Correspondingly, the per cent method yields essentially the same results as do other forms of factor comparison where these latter forms can also be used. The second innovation found in the per cent method lies in its use of two types of per cent ratings to produce two preliminary sets of rating scales, the differences between which enable the rating committee to cross-check its own judgments and to arrive quickly at a single set of rating scales on which it rates all other jobs by ordinary factor comparison. There are ten basic steps involved in the per cent method, as follows:

(1) selecting key jobs—10 to 15 jobs regardless of rate of pay which appear clearly to differ among themselves with respect to each of the job factors to be used; (2) ranking key jobs by factors used; (3) rating on per cent scale key jobs by factors used; (4) ranking factors within key jobs; (5) rating on per cent scale factors within key jobs; (6) obtaining two sets of preliminary factor scale values; (7) resolving discrepancies between the corresponding independent factor scale values; (8) constructing graphic factor scales and non-graphic factor scale lists; (9) rating the remaining jobs; and (10) transmuting evaluated points to rates of pay. Steps 2, 3, 4, 5, 7 and 9, which involve judgment or rating processes, should be taken only by a job rating committee. When only a very few jobs in all are to be evaluated, as in small organizations, steps 1, 8 and 9 are omitted. (Article contains graphs and tables showing details of various steps and computations in applying per cent method.)—*Robert C. Garnier.*

Recruitment; Selection; Induction

BOOKS, CHARLES W. "Checking the Applicants' References." *Personnel Journal* 26 (9) March, 1948: 329-31.—It is common practice to check the statements of an applicant for employment by writing to his former employers. Most of the methods for such checking in cur-

rent use are unsatisfactory in one way or another. Merit rating forms, for example, are time-consuming and all too frequently result in an "average" rating. Replies to letters seeking information are apt to be vague and nearly always favorable. Telephone inquiries often interrupt at a busy time of the day and return calls are frequently forgotten. Outside investigating agencies usually produce wordy and stereotyped reports which are of little value. The card form, on the other hand, is economical, requires little time, a minimum of writing, and is quickly answered and returned if a stamped, self-addressed, return envelope is enclosed. The Pennsylvania Company for Banking and Trusts recently adopted such a form and the results obtained show a definite improvement over those produced by other methods. A larger percentage of inquiries has been returned, most of them promptly. In addition, the replies, containing frank and informative answers, have been more accurate than those previously obtained by other methods. (Article contains a specimen copy of the form used.)—*Barbara Brattin.*

KURTZ, ALBERT K. "A Research Test of the Rorschach Test." *Personnel Psychology* 1 (1) Spring, 1948: 41-51.—Much has been claimed for the Rorschach test as a predictor of job success. This study tests the value of the Rorschach test as a predictor of success as a life insurance sales manager. The test was administered to 41 managers, 20 of whom were classed as poor and 21 of whom were classed as good. The tests were administered by Rorschach experts. Nine of the 21 best managers received high scores on the Rorschach; 7 of the 20 poorest managers received high scores. Of the 18 persons receiving low scores on the test, 9 of them were from the group of the poorest managers and 9 of them were from the group of the best managers: "on the basis of the scoring system developed, the Rorschach test showed no relation whatever to managerial success." The Pearson correlation for the first method of scoring of the Rorschach was $+0.02$, while a second method of scoring gave a Pearson correlation of $+0.17$. A weighted experience record form had a correlation of $+0.48$ for the same group. Validation data are also available for other occupational groups. These data indicate that "at the present time there is little or no evidence that it [the Rorschach test] is of any practical value in the selection of personnel in a variety of occupations . . ."—*Milton M. Mandell.*

ROSENBERGER, HOMER T. Testing Occupational Training and Experience." *Educational and Psychological Measurement* 8 (1) Spring, 1948: 101-15.—Performance tests have been developed to evaluate occupational skills in 35 specialized types of activities as one step in a training and promotion plan for employees of the federal prison system. The object of these tests is to determine by the shortest, simplest and most direct way whether a new employee claiming training or experience in an occupation related to prison work has enough relevant knowledge and skill to warrant a two-week trial assignment in that service. They are designed in such a way that a tradesman can demonstrate, with his own hands and with tools and equipment, proficiency in his trade and a professional person can demonstrate more than mere bookmindedness. The tests make no pretense at evaluating intelligence, educational achievement, judgment or personal adaptability. Typical jobs included are: *plumber*—caulk a cast iron pipe joint with lead; *firearms training instructor*—plan firearms instruction for a one-hour period and actually instruct a group of men; *cook*—prepare and serve a meal for four persons. The tests were developed from Washington by correspondence with ten institutions and by visiting institutions and trying the tests out under carefully controlled conditions. Each test is administered to one employee at a time by a supervisor qualified in the specific occupation. A rating scale based upon six elements from the standard federal service rating form, each evaluated as "outstanding," "adequate," or "weak," is used for the tests and for the two-week trial period given to those who pass. Supervisors are thus given a large part in the initial selection of employees for their own departments; this provides an incentive for them to do a thorough testing job.—William Brody.

STROMBERG, ELEROY L. "Testing Programs Draw Better Applicants." *Personnel Psychology* 1 (1) Spring, 1948: 21-29.—Many personnel managers who have adopted testing programs for eliminating poor employment risks have been surprised and even alarmed to discover within a short time a tendency for all applicants to qualify on the test batteries. The present report attempts to account for this phenomenon and to indicate some of its implications, with particular reference to a study made in three plants of a borderline industry. Four selective tests were validated by testing employees in all three plants. Comparison of

test scores of subsequent applicant groups with those of the criterion groups showed statistically significant differences in favor of the applicant groups. These differences could not be explained in terms of shifts in the labor market in view of the short time periods involved (six months in Illinois and three in Maryland). Nor could they be explained solely in terms of greater motivation on the part of the applicants, for a test of 50 applicants immediately after the tests were validated in Maryland, and before the use of the tests had been publicized in the industry, showed a reversal in the tendency of applicants to obtain higher scores than workers already employed. In this case the criterion group made significantly higher scores on two of the tests in the battery. The group of 50 applicants was then compared with applicants of the succeeding three months. Except for one test, the later applicants were significantly superior to the control applicants group and to the criterion group as well. The most reasonable explanation for these results appears to be that the very existence of the testing program tended to discourage poorer applicants from applying, while at the same time encouraging some superior applicants who might not otherwise have applied in a low-paying industry. It is possible to assume that any testing program could have done as well as one carefully validated. These conclusions suggest that psychologists should place increasing emphasis on the placement function of tests rather than on the validation of tests designed only to eliminate the poor risk. The proper placement of those with special qualifications is equally important if testing programs are to make their maximum contribution. (The article contains tables giving the mean and standard error of the mean for each test in each group and a measure of the significance of differences between means for comparable groups.)—Stanley S. Berg.

Employee Relations

GREEN, HAROLD E. "Twenty-one Steps for Obtaining Opinions and Facts from Employees." *Printer's Ink* 221 (9) November 28, 1947: 35-37, 61, 63.—Need for more frequent and more effective communication among personnel is apparent from current studies of employer-employee relations. The core of improved relations consists of management's getting true facts about conditions (not just its own opinion), and taking immediate positive steps based on the information obtained. Inadequate channels and lack of confidence on

the part of employees makes this information difficult to obtain. The weaknesses of interviews and essay-type surveys point out the advantages of a combination multiple-answer and essay questionnaire. The questionnaire can be designed to find answers to specific problems in which the company is interested, yet register varying degrees of opinion about its policies. Breakdowns by department, classification, age, etc. can of course be made, though the questionnaires are not signed. Several survey organizations are advocating this type of survey and have made use of it in large companies. Among the 21 steps are the determination of objectives, selection of personnel, a tour of the plant with interviews of numerous employees. All this is done before information is consolidated into questions to be used. Instructions to employees include an explanation of the reason for the survey and a campaign to sell it to them. A careful schedule in shift rotation is made to expedite the survey, which is announced only 24 hours before it is carried out. Sample items include "When your company is faced with a serious problem would you like to know about it?" and "Do you understand your group insurance plan?" After the survey, a check is made for ideas that can be put into effect immediately, and employees are mailed a copy of the report of results. A more detailed and well-analyzed report is made to the management.—*Sue Sims.*

HAND, THOMAS; HOPPOCK, ROBERT; and ZLATCHIN, PHILLIP J. "Job Satisfaction: Researches of 1944 and 1945." *Occupations* 26 (7) April, 1948: 425-31.—This is the fifth in a series of biennial reviews of recent research on job satisfaction. It covers 34 reports published during the calendar years of 1944 and 1945. The factors considered in the reports relating or contributing to job satisfaction range from achievement in production to work shifts. In order to isolate casual factors of disturbance in one industrial relations study, voluntary termination data were selected on a random basis and subjected to various types of analyses. The combinations of data selected for analysis included groupings by sex, division of sex groupings into five equal age groups, division of the sex groupings by marital status and length of employment. Studies of employee irritants used to survey large and small companies reflected consistently higher morale in small companies and showed a rise with the age of the employee. In large plants morale ran low between the ages of 20 and 24 and

rose as the age increased. Surveys by psychologists of employee opinions and suggestions disclosed that employee suggestions emphasized efficiency and plant organization. A study designed to isolate trouble makers was attempted by developing a questionnaire around three favorable traits namely, cooperativeness, objectivity, and agreeableness. In choosing sociometric techniques to determine the influence of interpersonal relations in strikes, it was found that little had been done beforehand to bring employees together and this served as the foundation for poor morale in the event of a crisis. Studies of frustration disclosed that human and social factors frequently underlie economic issues in creating crises, and frequently prestige, recognition, and other personal values are at the root of wage disputes. In a study of vocational interests of women, 69 per cent of the sample expressed job satisfaction, and those who had chosen professional positions appeared to be the best satisfied. Causes of job dissatisfaction were concluded to be the feeling of unimportance, lack of mutual understanding, unvoiced grievances, discrimination, and tedium. Satisfaction and high morale were found when workers know the goal of the "team" and the promotional steps available to them. Several studies on employee satisfaction cover and emphasize the importance to morale of the personal relationships between the employees and supervisor, good personnel and placement policies and attention to extra-plant conditions, enlightened supervision and employee counseling. Arthur Kornhauser, in his analysis of various types of employee attitude surveys, believes that the most significant contribution psychology can make to the job satisfaction field is in the development and improvement of clinical judgments bearing on the "social-psychological dynamics of employment relations." (Article contains table of job satisfaction factors and bibliography of 34 reports reviewed.)—*Charles R. Lohmeyer.*

MARROW, ALFRED. "Group Dynamics in Industry—Implications for Guidance and Personnel Workers." *Occupations* 26 (8) May, 1948: 472-76.—To meet the challenge of modern industrial production, three things are necessary: 1) the applied psychologist must become familiar with non-psychological industrial aspects; 2) industrial psychological research must follow the pattern of action research in developing techniques for constructive changes in personnel attitudes; and 3) re-

searches must have follow-through application by involving the practical man who has say-so in policy matters. A theory based on a study of the Harwood Manufacturing plant was that stereotyped exit interview excuses did not explain high labor turnover which might rather be a symptom of workers' failure feelings. Presumably two factors were in conflict: (1) typical goal gradient behavior; vs. (2) the higher the level of production, the greater the difficulty of increasing production. A significant finding was that turnover increases as the experienced level is approached and decreases sharply once the success feeling is attained. After training was changed to set up sub-goals with reduced time limits, the over-all turnover rate dropped 50 per cent, while the "almost skilled level" rate dropped to 75 per cent in 1947 from the 300 per cent of 1944. Another effect of success-failure feelings was resistance to transfers or method changes expressed in several ways: grievances, turnover, low efficiency, lowered output and marked aggression against management. Turnover rate was highest for operators just after changes. Another motivational problem appeared in the slowed learning rate after change as compared with the normal learning rate. Leadership training was introduced for foremen, group leaders, who were selected for technical knowledge, and daily production increased. This success led to training for trainers of the learners and learning time was reduced more than 50 per cent. These and subsequent studies indicated four component forces corresponding to goals of pay, job security, status and success. Apparently the manner in which experiences were introduced was the decisive factor in producing a change in attitude.—*Aura-Lee Ageton.*

Veterans' Preference

CISIN, IRA H. and ELINSON, JACK. "Do Veter-

ans Want Preference?" *Personnel Administration* 10 (5) May, 1948: 27, 43.—Conflicting pressures for the improvement of the "merit system" on the one hand and for increased veterans' preference on the other provide a continuous headache to the U. S. Civil Service Commission. To determine where the average veteran stands on this question, Opinion Research Institute of Washington, D. C., made a special analysis of a War Department poll among a cross-section of soldiers shortly after V-J day. One out of three citizen-soldiers felt that the veterans were entitled to super-seniority preference—that is, a veteran should be offered a civil service vacancy even if he is less qualified for the job than a competing non-veteran. Half of the men felt that the veteran should be given preference only if he is just as well qualified as the competing non-veteran. The remaining 17 per cent advocated a strict merit system with the job going to the best qualified applicant regardless of veteran status. The citizen-soldiers were then asked, "Do you agree or disagree with the following statement: Veterans should have to pass examinations to get government jobs?" Replies were 79 per cent agree, 21 per cent disagree. The statement "Veterans should get ten extra points added on to their examination grades" was agreed to by 69 per cent, with 31 per cent in disagreement. It was immediately apparent from these results that the men who were destined to become veterans were by no means unanimous on the subject of preferential treatment. Further analysis revealed that those who were planning to seek government jobs after discharge from the military service were most likely to favor preference for veterans. Finally, and contrary to what might be expected, the degree of sacrifice represented by each man's military service seemed to have no relation to his feelings on the preference question.—*Charles H. Bentley.*

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